

E 2539

Entered



THIRTY YEARS OF THE SOVIET STATE

CALENDAR



Foreign Languages Publishing House
Moscow 1947

COMRADES, THE WORKERS' AND PEASANTS' REVOLUTION, ABOUT THE NECESSITY OF WHICH THE BOLSHEVIKS HAVE ALWAYS SPOKEN, HAS TAKEN PLACE.

WHAT IS THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS WORKERS' AND PEASANTS' REVOLUTION? ITS SIGNIFICANCE IS, FIRST OF ALL, THAT WE SHALL HAVE A SOVIET GOVERNMENT, OUR OWN ORGAN OF POWER, IN WHICH THE BOURGEOISIE WILL HAVE NO SHARE WHATEVER. THE OPPRESSED MASSES WILL THEMSELVES CREATE A POWER. THE OLD STATE APPARATUS WILL BE SHATTERED TO ITS FOUNDATIONS AND A NEW ADMINISTRATIVE APPARATUS SET UP IN THE SHAPE OF THE SOVIET ORGANIZATIONS.

FROM NOW ON, A NEW PHASE IN THE HISTORY OF RUSSIA BEGINS, AND THIS REVOLUTION, THE THIRD RUSSIAN REVOLUTION, SHOULD IN THE END LEAD TO THE VICTORY OF SOCIALISM.

LENIN

Vertical line of text or a page number, possibly 17.



Horizontal line of text or a page number, possibly 18.

OUR SOVIET SOCIETY HAS ALREADY, IN THE MAIN, SUCCEEDED IN ACHIEVING SOCIALISM; IT HAS CREATED A SOCIALIST SYSTEM, *I. E.*, IT HAS BROUGHT ABOUT WHAT MARXISTS IN OTHER WORDS CALL THE FIRST, OR LOWER, PHASE OF COMMUNISM.

STALIN



JANUARY

- JANUARY 1, 1919** *The Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic formed.*
- JANUARY 7, 1947** *100th anniversary of the birth of the great Russian scientist Alexander Karpinsky.*
- JANUARY 8, 1878** *The great Russian poet Nikolai Nekrasov died.*
- JANUARY 10, 1945** *The restoration of the Moscow Coal Basin, destroyed by the German invaders, completed.*
- JANUARY 17, 1947** *100th anniversary of the birth of Nikolai Zhukovsky, famous Russian scientist and "father of Russian aviation."*
- JANUARY 17, 1918** *The Declaration of Rights of the Working and Exploited published.*
- JANUARY 20, 1918** *The First All-Russian Congress of Trade Unions opened.*
- JANUARY 21, 1924** *Vladimir Ilyich Lenin died.*
- JANUARY 22** *Lenin Memorial Day.*
- JANUARY 23, 1755** *Moscow University founded.*
- JANUARY 27, 1944** *The Soviet Army raised the siege of Leningrad.*



***The Arms
of the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist
Republic***

BYELORUSSIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE BYELORUSSIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC is situated in the western part of the U.S.S.R. Occupying an area of 208,000 square kilometres, the republic has a population, according to pre-war figures, of some 11,000,000. The majority of them are Byelorussians, people of Slav stock related to the Russians and Ukrainians. The population also includes Russians, Ukrainians, Jews and other nationalities.

In the past Byelorussia was an economically and culturally backward district of tsarist Russia. The founders of the Byelorussian state were Lenin and Stalin, the leaders of the victorious Socialist Revolution in November (October) 1917. The Byelorussian S.S.R. was formed on January 1, 1919 and in December 1922 entered the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics as one of its constituent members. Some districts inhabited by Byelorussians remained outside the republic and for a long time formed part of bourgeois-landlord Poland. Some of them were incorporated in the Byelorussian S.S.R. in 1939, and the rest at the end of the recent war when the present Soviet-Polish boundary line was fixed by agreement between the U.S.S.R. and democratic Poland.

The Byelorussian S.S.R., like the other Union republics, has the right to enter into relations with foreign countries. It is a member of the United Nations Organization in its own right.

Under Soviet rule Byelorussia has become a progressive, industrial-agrarian Soviet republic. Amongst the new industries established in the republic during the Soviet period, are those manufacturing machine-tools, chemicals, textiles, clothing and underwear, leather goods, furniture and farm-machinery. By 1940 the republic's gross industrial output had increased 23-fold compared with 1913. Peat output was 226 times the 1913 figure, having reached a total of 3,170,000 tons, the generation of electricity increased 109 times.

The city of Minsk, the republic's capital, has become a big industrial centre with a population of 320,000. The formerly small towns of Gomel, Vitebsk, Orsha, Moghilev and Bobruisk have acquired industrial importance.

The republic's agriculture has been modernized by the introduction of high-class tractors, combines, flax pullers and potato diggers. As a result of the growth and the organizational and economic consolidation of the collective and state farms, the area sown to wheat had increased fivefold, to potatoes twofold, to industrial crops two-and-a-half-fold by 1940. Livestock products also show a considerable increase. Much has been done in the line of draining marshes, which constitute a considerable area in the republic.

Byelorussia has achieved great progress in the development of its national culture. Illiteracy has been completely wiped out and universal elementary education introduced. In 1941 the republic had 26 higher educational institutions and 41 research institutes.

Under Soviet rule a numerous native intelligentsia has grown up in the republic. Teachers alone numbered over 60,000 in 1941. The Academy of Sciences of the Byelorussian S.S.R. was carrying on extensive work. The republic, which in tsarist times had no theatre of its own, had 23 on the outbreak of the war, including a state opera and ballet, and a dramatic theatre named after Yanka Kupala. A state conservatory of music, a picture gallery, a motion-picture studio and dozens of other cultural establishments have been founded.

The Byelorussian S.S.R. was one of the first Soviet republics to be pounded in 1941 by the Nazi war machine. It is impossible to conceive the full extent of the destruction wrought by the Germans on Byelorussian soil without having seen it. The Hitlerite bandits exterminated approximately 2,000,000 civilians in town and country and destroyed

half of Byelorussia's national wealth. They blew up or wrecked almost all the power stations, looted all the factories and shipped off their equipment to Germany. Minsk, Gomel, Vitebsk, Polotsk and Orsha were reduced to rack and ruin. The Nazis sacked and gutted the State University and the Academy of Sciences of Byelorussia with their valuable libraries. Partisan warfare set all of Byelorussia aflame during the years of German occupation. Hundreds of German trains loaded with arms and ammunition were blown up by Byelorussian partisans. Over half a million German officers and soldiers were killed or wounded by the partisans.

The intelligentsia made common cause with the workers and farmers in the fight against the Nazis. The Byelorussian partisan detachments included 7,175 teachers, 641 agronomists, 2,787 doctors, and other medical workers, 2,558 engineers and technicians and about 35,000 high school and university students.

No sooner was the republic freed of the invader than reconstruction began full blast. Already at the end of 1946 more than 6,000 industrial establishments had been resurrected from the ruins and began to produce. They included such large enterprises as the Gomel Farm Machinery Works, the Minsk Radio Factory, the Stalin Glass Works, the Gomel, Minsk and Vitebsk machine-tool plants and many others.

The aggregate capacity of restored power plants is 62 per cent of pre-war. Local industry's output for 1946 was 83 per cent of the pre-war figure.

Agriculture, which was devastated by the three years of Nazi occupation, has witnessed the rebirth of 9,799 collective farms. Sowing areas have been restored 76.4 per cent. The Soviet government has greatly assisted the Byelorussian farmers in the building of dwelling houses. The farmers have received free of charge more than 11,500,000 cubic metres of lumber and long-term credits amounting to 258,000,000 rubles. The result has been the construction of 256,000 new dwelling houses. More than 1,500,000 people have moved from dugouts and shanties to new well appointed dwellings. In the cities and district centres of the republic 1,750,000 square metres of housing space has been restored or built anew. More than 11,000 primary and secondary schools, 100 technical schools and 25 higher educational institutions have again opened their doors, total attendance being 1,300,000.

Great tasks have been assigned to the republic under the provisions of the new Five-Year Plan (1946-50). Its national economy will be enriched by the investment of approximately 7,000,000,000 rubles, which is considerably more than was invested during the three preceding Stalin Five-Year Plan periods. New industries will arise, such as the manufacture of automobiles, tractors, locomobiles and turbines. The capacity of power stations will be raised to 220 per cent of pre-war. Industrial output as a whole will be 16 per cent above 1940 at the end of the five-year period. Sowing areas will regain their former extent, with yields in excess of pre-war.

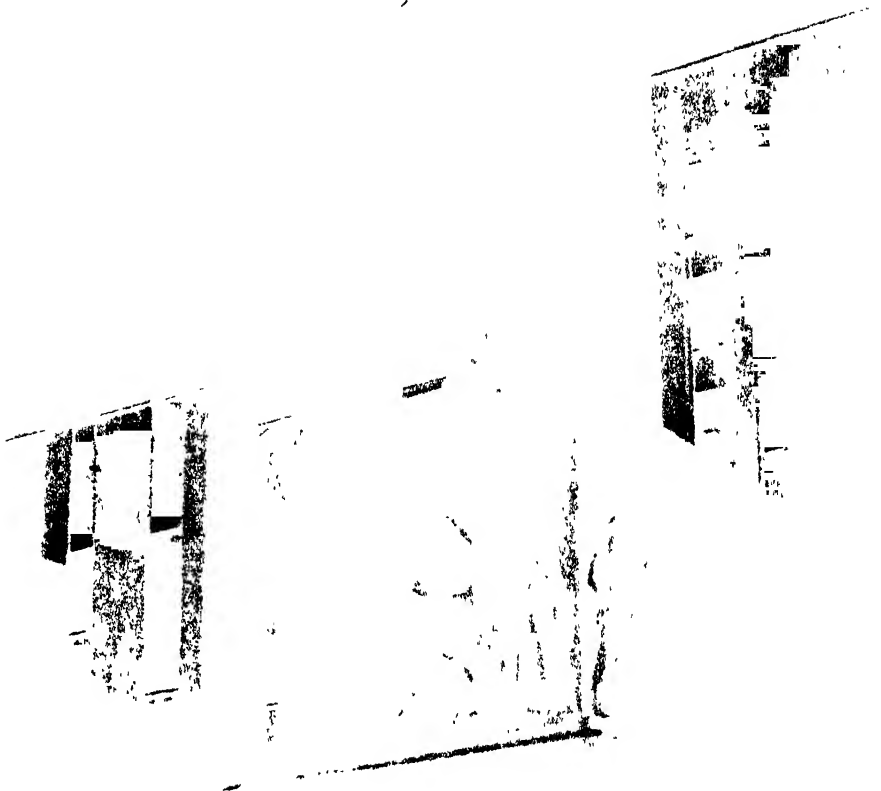
Particular attention is paid under the Five-Year Plan to the question of raising the material and cultural standards of the people. In the urban districts alone 4,200,000 square metres of housing space will be built. The municipal services destroyed by the Hitlerites will be rehabilitated.

In 1947 housing on the collective farms will have been completely restored. There will be considerably more clubs, libraries and other cultural establishments in Byelorussia than before the war. School children and college students will number 1,500,000.

The fulfilment of the post-war Five-Year Plan will mean that in the main the devastation caused by the German invaders in Byelorussia will have been made good and that great improvement will have been attained in the material and cultural welfare of the republic.



A MONUMENT TO LENIN IN
MINSK, CAPITAL OF THE
BYELORUSSIAN S.S.R.



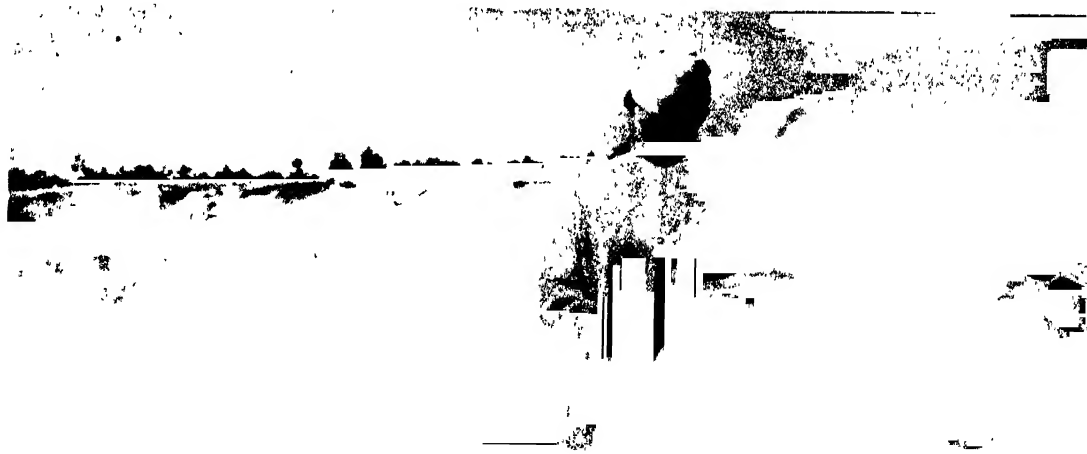
The Voroshilov District of Minsk, 1946





THE MINSK TRACTOR PLANT—
ONE OF THE BIGGEST CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS OF THE FOURTH
FIVE-YEAR PLAN

Building the press shop



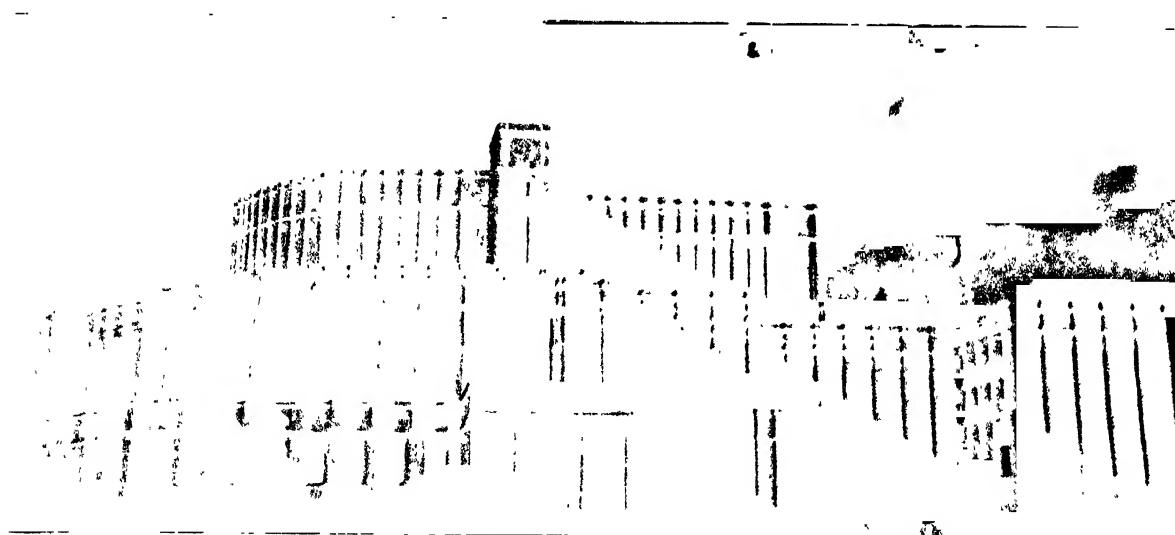
Booking in the milk at the
Rassvet Collective Farm,
Bobruisk district



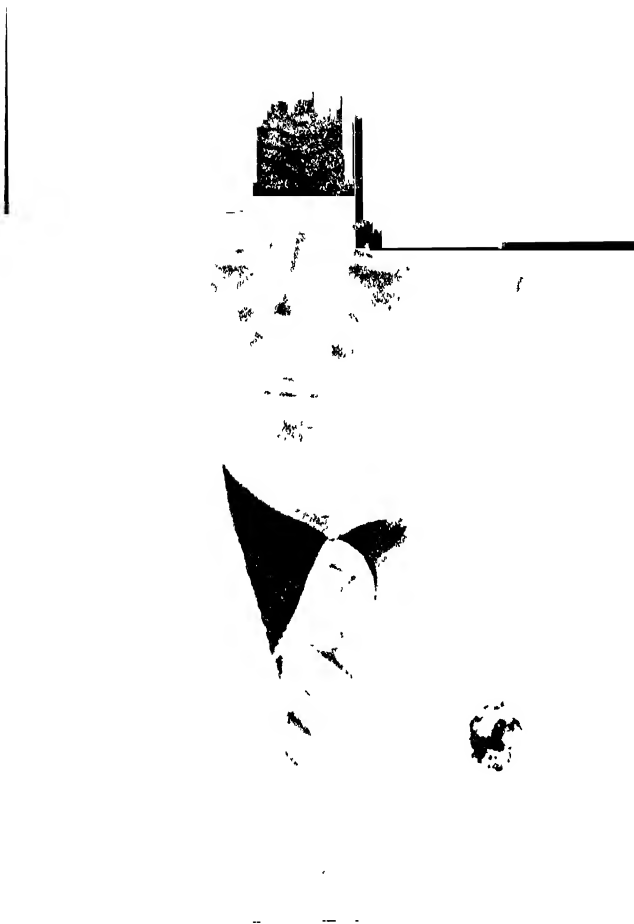
THE DNEIPER-BUG CANAL

SERGEI SIKORSKY

Hero of the Soviet Union
Sergei Sikorsky, the initiator
of the restoration work on the
Dnieper-Bug Canal. During
the Great Patriotic War he
was one of the outstanding
leaders of the partisan move-
ment in Byelorussia



THE STATE THEATRE OF OPERA AND BALLET OF THE BYELORUSSIAN S.S.R.
REBUILT AFTER IT HAD BEEN DESTROYED BY THE GERMANS. MINSK, 1946



YANKA KUPALA

(1882-1942)

THE DEVELOPMENT of Byelorussian literature, like that of any other non-Russian literature, was forcibly prevented in tsarist Russia. The Byelorussian language was forbidden in the schools, in public speeches and in official documents. And in those years the voice of the Byelorussian poet, Yanka Kupala, who was little known at that time, was heard saying:

*And who, then, are they, crossing forest and swampland,
What is this mighty concourse of men?*

and Kupala answered that they are Byelorussians, carrying the yoke of injustice on their emaciated shoulders in order to show it to the world. "Want and grief" taught them to do this, awoke them from their sleep, and evoked in the oppressed Byelorussians a desire to be "called human beings." Maxim Gorky called his poem a hymn, and was the first to translate it into the Russian language.

Ivan Dominikovich Lutsevich (Yanka Kupala is a nom de plume) was born into the family of a peasant, a petty tenant who was forced to wander from one strip of land to another. He was fifteen when he

graduated from the village grammar school. Farming did not attract young Lutsevich; he eagerly turned to books and worked hard at poetry.

The revolutionary events of 1905 helped the poet to understand the life around him, but a considerable time elapsed before his literary and social outlook was definitely moulded. Yanka Kupala's poems in this period called upon the Byelorussian people to wage a struggle for national liberation: "Let the scythes ring more boldly," "stir up the bosom of the earth, break down all barriers, break a straight road." But the revolution was defeated and the poet felt this deeply.

In his first book of poems, to which the poet gave the name of the national musical instrument *Zhaleika* (1908), Yanka Kupala proved himself a genuine bard of his people. In this early creative period Kupala wrote about the poor peasant, oppressed by the exploiting landlord. His poems contain melody, warmth, gentleness and sincerity. The poet demanded the freedom and national liberation of the Byelorussian people. Although in Kupala's poems the word freedom does not appear, and he only impliedly refers to it speaking of a "strength equal to that of the sun," the tsar's government nevertheless confiscated his first book.

From 1909 to 1913 Kupala attended general education courses in St. Petersburg, after which he worked in a library and wrote poems. From 1911 to 1915 he edited the Byelorussian newspaper *Nasha Niva* (*Our Field*).

With the appearance of the books, *Guslyar* (1910) and *On the Road of Life* (1913), Yanka Kupala took his place in the front ranks of the young Byelorussian literature; but it was only after the Great October Socialist Revolution that he became a genuine national poet. Kupala's poems cover the history of the Byelorussian people, their life and traditions, their character, all the originality of thought and feeling that has accumulated through the centuries. The poet attentively observed the birth and development of the collective-farm movement and welcomed it. Yanka Kupala sang of the happiness of creative labour, of the emancipation of the peasant women, of the new family life, of the youth and its leaders—the members of the Young Communist League—of the heroic Red Army, of its victories, of the friendship of the peoples of the Soviet Union.

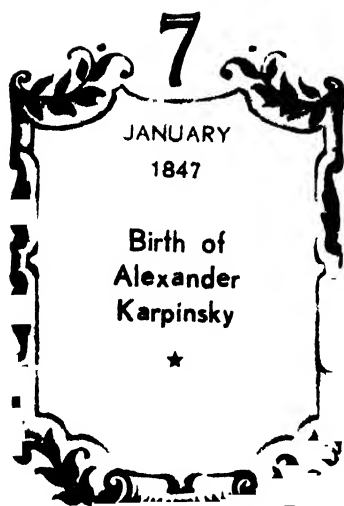
In 1925 the title of People's Poet was conferred upon Yanka Kupala by the government of the Byelorussian Republic.

The collection of poems, *From the Heart*, earned the poet a Stalin Prize in 1941. In the last pre-war elections, Yanka Kupala, poet, dramatist and scientist, was elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Byelorussian S.S.R.

Kupala's work, like that of every great artist, contains features common to all mankind and reaches far beyond the bounds of national culture.

Yanka Kupala, together with his friend, the poet Yakub Kolas, conducted extensive work in the field of reforming Byelorussian orthography, editing works on the science of language, and publishing dictionaries of the Byelorussian language.

Kupala was a member of the Byelorussian and Ukrainian Academies of Sciences.



A. KARPINSKY

ALEXANDER KARPINSKY

(1847-1936)

ALEXANDER KARPINSKY, the renowned Russian geologist, was born in the Urals, the son of a mining engineer. In 1866 he graduated the St. Petersburg Mining Institute with a Gold Medal and returned to the Urals where he worked for three years as a mining engineer and engaged in research work.

In 1869 Karpinsky was invited to the St. Petersburg Mining Institute as assistant professor to the Chair of Geology. In 1877 he himself was appointed to the Chair, and continued teaching with excellent results until 1897.

He was one of the first organizers of the Geological Committee which he headed from 1885 to 1903.

In 1886 Karpinsky was elected to the Russian Academy of Sciences. For half a century Karpinsky remained a member of the Academy, the last twenty years (1916-36) of which he was its president.

Karpinsky's research work embraced many different branches of geology: stratigraphy, paleontology, petrography, mineralogy, general and dynamic geology. In each of these fields Karpinsky was a specialist without parallel. He was a master of scientific analysis and had an expert knowledge of the subjects and materials examined. Karpinsky's researches took him to the Urals, the Altai Mountains, the Kirghiz Steppes, the Donetz Basin and to other parts of the country.

He studied the geological structure of the ancient Ural Mountains and in 1878 published the first report of the mineral wealth contained in them.

Two of Karpinsky's books—*An Outline of the Physical Geography of European Russia in Past Geological Periods* and *The General Character of the Changes in the Earth's Crust within the Bounds of European Russia*—were of great importance for a study of the structure and the history of the development of the Russian plain.

In 1892 Alexander Karpinsky produced the first geological map of European Russia. His method was later used abroad for the compilation of a geological map of Europe.

Paleogeography and tectonics as practised in our country today are a development of the work of this brilliant scholar.

As a petrographer Karpinsky introduced into Russia the optical method of studying rocks under the microscope, wrote a manual on this subject and himself studied various rock formations in the Urals and in Siberia.

Many of Karpinsky's papers deal with the remains of fossil animals and plants.

The conclusions which Karpinsky drew from his scientific studies were of practical economic importance. Huge heavy-industry enterprises grew up in those regions where his work was done.

One of the numerous examples of the practical significance of his scientific work was his forecast of the presence of rock salt at Bakh-

mut (now Artemovsk) which later became the centre of the salt industry for the southern regions of the Soviet Union. Karpinsky not only predicted the exact position of the rock salt deposits in the Donets basin but he also indicated the places where wells were to be sunk. In the Revda district of the Urals he discovered deposits of nickel and on the eastern slopes of the same mountain range deposits of coal.

Karpinsky discovered and studied the Artinsk Shelf in the Permian strata where oil was later found (the Chusovsk, Ishimbayev and other oil-fields now known as the "Second Baku").

Karpinsky was the first to raise the question of developing a Greater Donetz coal-field: he showed that the coal seams extend to the south-east across the Northern Donetz River to the Caspian Sea.

Karpinsky worked for almost three-quarters of a century on the development of the geology of the U.S.S.R. His scientific discoveries earned him world-wide fame and brought the Russian school of geologists to a leading place in world science.

Karpinsky was a member or fellow of many foreign learned societies and academies.

His life serves as a splendid example of ceaseless service to science—he was a geologist-researcher, a mining engineer, and a theoretician who combined theory with its practical application. He left behind him a tremendous legacy of about 500 scientific papers.

Karpinsky was a fine Soviet patriot and citizen. At the Seventh All-Union Congress of Soviets held in 1935 he was elected a member of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R.

At the Tenth Congress of the Lenin Young Communist League the scientist addressed the assembled youth:

"It is your lot to carry forward—not only in our own country but also beyond its frontiers—the idea of the equality and rights of man, the equality of all nations, an idea that has so rapidly and brilliantly become reality in our country."

In his speeches at various congresses and conferences Karpinsky always appealed to scientists to combine their research work with the practical problems arising out of socialist construction in the country. He had a tremendous love for his country and toiled selflessly to the last days of his life for the benefit of the Soviet people.

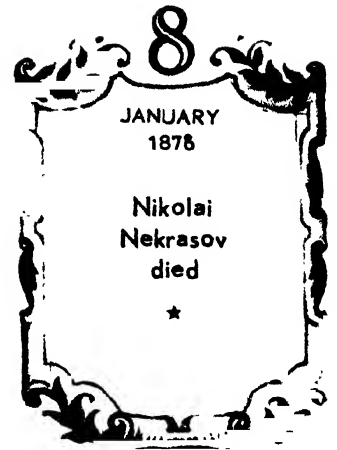
Karpinsky died on July 15, 1936 in the ninetieth year of his life.

On his last journey Karpinsky was accompanied by the Soviet people headed by the leader and teacher of all working people, the mainspring of Soviet science, Joseph Stalin. The urn containing his ashes was immured in the Kremlin wall in Moscow.

A Karpinsky Gold Medal was instituted by the Soviet government on the occasion of the centenary of his birth. The medal will be awarded by the Presidium of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. for outstanding works in the field of geology submitted by Soviet and foreign scientists.



MAWAR SAKAL JUNG BAHADUR



Painting by I. Kramskoy

N. NEKRASOV

NIKOLAI NEKRASOV

(1821-1878)

NIKOLAI NEKRASOV was born in the little township of Yurvin in the Ukraine. His early years were spent at his father's estate on the Volga near Yaroslavl. In 1838, when Nekrasov had had five years' education at the Yaroslavl *gymnasium*, his father sent him to St. Petersburg to enter an army school. The future poet, however, preferred to study in the university and began to prepare for the entry examinations. His father refused to make him an allowance on account of his disobedience. For several years he lived the life of the city poor, all the time engaged in a fierce struggle for existence. Nekrasov had escaped the horrors of serfdom in the countryside only to land in the "whirlpool" of urban life. In the capital he found the social contradictions of village serfdom, though in a different form.

His acquaintance with the eminent Russian critic Vissarion Belinsky played an important part in the development of Nekrasov's poetic talent: as Nekrasov himself said, Belinsky "taught him to think as a humanitarian."

Nekrasov developed as a citizen-poet who passionately defended the poor. He took a foremost place in the literary and social life of the period because this talent of his was fed upon the most progressive ideas of his time.

In the fifties and sixties of the last century Nekrasov edited and published the magazine *Sovremennik* (*Contemporary*), a journal that had been founded by Pushkin. The first number of the *Sovremennik* issued by Nekrasov appeared in January 1847 and for almost twenty years, until the magazine was banned by the government, it continued to propagate progressive ideas despite all the strictness of the censorship. *Sovremennik* became the rallying point of the best literary forces in Russia and left a permanent mark on Russian culture and the Russian liberation movement. Great writers—Leo Tolstoy and Ivan Turgenev—and the great revolutionary democrats—Nikolai Chernyshevsky, Vissarion Belinsky and Nikolai Dobrolyubov—published their writings in *Sovremennik* and helped Nekrasov overcome certain contradictions and vacillations in what was at that time no easy path of development as a poet. Nekrasov was wholeheartedly devoted to his revolutionary democratic convictions and suffered mental torture because he had not been "amongst those who died for the sake of the people," and had gone forward towards the revolutionary goal "without sacrificing himself."

In those years Nekrasov was one of the few men prominent in Russian public life who, in the words of Lenin, understood to the full the narrowness, the scantiness of the notorious "peasant reform," understood its slave nature. "In place of the net of serfdom, other

nets are being invented," was the poet's response to the reform. In the 'seventies Nikolai Nekrasov took over the most progressive journal of the day, *Otechestvenniye Zapiski* (*Homeland Notes*), whose columns carried theoretical controversial articles and poems filled with hatred for, and ruthlessly exposing, the enemies of the revolution and their ideas.

The poet dedicated his lyre to the Russian people. With the world outlook of a revolutionary democrat he was able to find new currents in the boundless sea of peasant life, tendencies that showed the spiritual growth of the awakening people. Nekrasov's best poem—*Who Lives Well in Russia*—is dedicated to the peasant insurrectionary; this is a sort of encyclopedia dealing mainly with peasant life in the middle of the 19th century, an exposure of serfdom and disfranchisement.

In the 'seventies Nekrasov's poetry breathed revolutionary enthusiasm and confidence in the final victory of the people. In addition to the peasantry the poet gave considerable prominence to the revolutionary intelligentsia. He glorified those who fought for the liberation of the people, counterposing them to the liberal reformers.

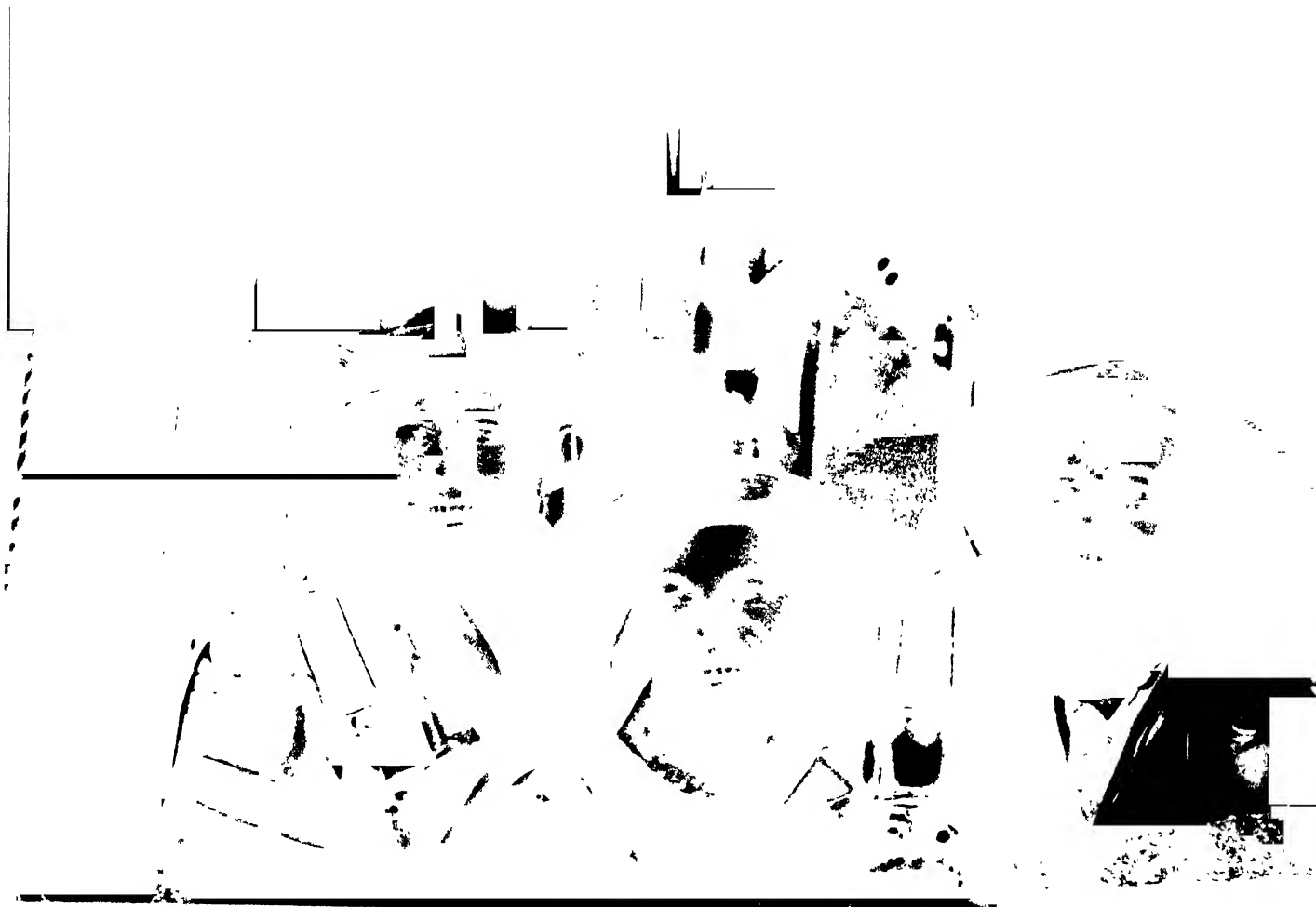
In all Russian literature it would be difficult to find a more powerful poetic treatment and glorification of political exiles than Nekrasov's *Russian Women* (*The Decembrists*) in which he expressed his admiration for the self-abnegation of the wives of the Decembrists who voluntarily followed their husbands into exile in Siberia.

Nikolai Nekrasov's poems, refuting the theory of "art for art's sake," rejecting the "sweet-sounding song" of loving kindness and patience, were an appeal to the Russian intelligentsia to work for the people, to be citizens first of all, to think of the good of one's fellow creature and live for his sake, to fight for a better future in which the industrious people—the poet had profound faith in this—will mature in struggle and find the road to a better, to a free life.

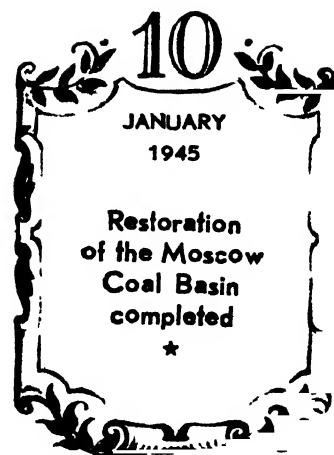
Nekrasov's poems served to educate and inspire several generations of fighters for the cause of the people.

In the 'sixties and 'seventies Nikolai Nekrasov dominated the minds of the youth. His profoundly ideological, revolutionary democratic poetry has had a tremendous influence on Soviet poets of the most varied types—Vladimir Mayakovsky, Alexander Tvardovsky, Alexei Surkov and Mikhail Isakovsky.

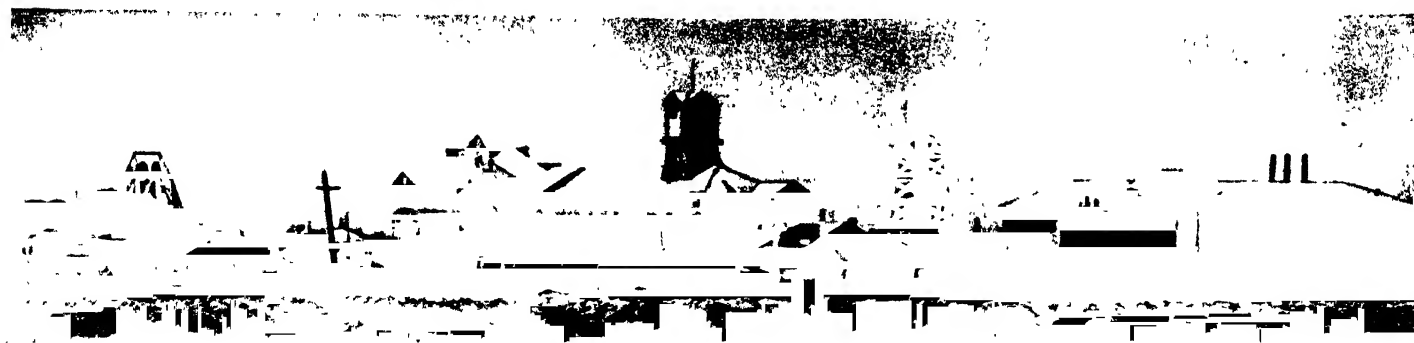
In December 1946 the Soviet people commemorated the 125th anniversary of the birth of the great poet and citizen. The Nekrasov Jubilee was a nation-wide festival celebrated by reader and citizen.



Famous tunnellers and builders of new mines in the Moscow Coal Basin—Alexander Medvedev, Vassili Lastochkin and Stepan Dedov



The construction of one of the biggest mines, No 42, has been completed. It was opened in 1946—in the first year of the fourth Five-Year Plan



THE MOSCOW COAL BASIN

THE COAL DEPOSITS near Moscow were discovered in 1766, but little prospecting was done before the Socialist Revolution and the coal mined was obtained by very crude methods. The Moscow coal-fields did not prosper until Soviet authorities took charge.

During the Civil War the young Soviet republic was cut off from the Donetz coal and Baku oil, so that extreme urgency attached to the problem of making the Moscow coal basin the purveyor of fuel for the central part of the country. The energetic measures of the Soviet government, with Lenin personally keeping an eye on developments, enabled the miners after heroic efforts to restore the war-stricken coal area and by 1921 the Moscow basin already topped the highest pre-war output.

When the Civil War was over there set in a period of technical reconstruction and operational expansion of the coal basin. Additional power stations were erected and new mines opened with mechanized cages and lifts, mechanical sorters and modern ventilation systems installed in the pits. Dwellings, clubs, schools, theatres and public dining rooms were built for the mining population. During the first decade after the Socialist Revolution the Moscow coal basin yielded 7,352,000 tons of coal as compared with 3 670,000 tons produced the decade before the revolution.

Development on a grand scale was witnessed by the basin during the Stalin Five-Year Plan periods. At the beginning of the first five-year period (1928) there were 17 mines; at the end of the second (1937) that number had multiplied three and a half times over. In 1939-40, 37 new mines were put in operation.

In 1937, the basin's output increased six times over as compared with the 1928 figure. In rate of expansion the Moscow basin outstripped all other coal regions; the Donetz basin registered a threefold increase in production in comparison with the pre-revolutionary figure, while the Moscow basin's increase was twenty-five-fold with known deposits assessed at 12,000,000,000 tons.

In 1929-30, only ten per cent of the output was extracted by mechanical means; at the end of the second Five-Year Plan period more than 80 per cent. These figures indicate a fundamental change in mining methods. The predominant mechanization reflected the tremendous progress in Soviet engineering, and the set purpose of the government to alleviate the lot of the miner. In 1940, the Moscow basin mined 30 per cent more coal than in 1937; and during the first half of 1941 the output continued to grow steadily.

The fascist attack on the Soviet Union in June of 1941 interrupted this record of steady advance, the Moscow coal basin having been occupied by the Germans that same year. But for 21 days only, after which, in the middle of December, they were ejected by the Soviet Army's powerful counter-blow.

However, during this short period of time, the fascist vandals had blown up and destroyed scores of mines, demolished thousands of houses, and hanged, shot or driven off into bondage thousands of the miners. Not a house remained intact in the mining towns of Bogoroditsk, Bolokhovo and Shchekino.

On December 29, 1941, the Soviet government already decided

upon the immediate rehabilitation of the basin in order to provide the Central regions with coal.

The restoration of the Moscow coal basin is one of the brightest spots in the fierce struggle the Soviet people waged on the labour front during the war. With socialist emulation to spur on miners and builders, the work of restoration made remarkable strides. On January 11, 1942, only 13 days after the government had decided on rehabilitation, Mine Number 10 of the Stalinogorsk Coal Trust, one of the oldest mines in the basin, already produced coal, and was shortly followed by a string of others. With the battlefield only a few score kilometres away and German aeroplanes pounding pits and workers' settlements, the rehabilitation gangs doggedly continued on the job, inaugurating mines, power stations, business buildings and dwelling houses. By August 1943, the work of restoration was complete. On September 26, 1943, the State Defence Committee announced that "the Moscow coal basin that had been devastated by the German invaders was completely restored and producing eighteen per cent more coal than before the war."

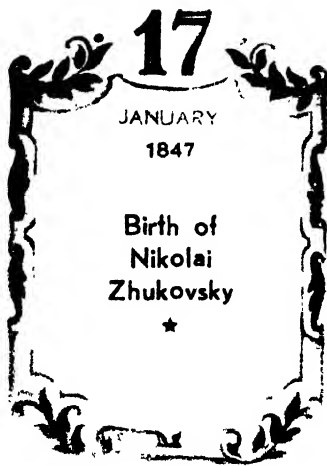
A large number of miners, mining engineers and construction workers who had participated in this restoration feat were awarded government Orders and Medals.

In spite of the fact that the war continued for a long time thereafter, and the front still had priority in the requisitioning of supplies, plant, housing and hospital accommodations and amenities continued to increase in the Moscow basin. In 1944, the combined output of restored and new mines was double pre-war. While the Donetz basin, the country's principal source of coal, had been in German hands, and during the initial period of the general post-war rehabilitation, Moscow coal was the mainstay of coal-consuming Moscow city, Moscow Region, and the rest of Central Russia.

In 1945, Generalissimo Stalin sent the miners of the Moscow basin a message of congratulation upon the successes they had achieved, and expressed his firm conviction that they would do still better in the future. The miners have justified the confidence placed in them by the leader of the Soviet people. The list of Moscow coal basin Stakhanovites is steadily growing—of the men and women whose skill in the organization and application of labour and whose initiative and inventive genius are constantly developing its potentialities. Their number includes Leonid Boriskin, a follower of the prototype, Alexander Stakhanov, who has become well-known also beyond the confines of the basin as an outstanding innovator in the coal-mining industry.

The new Five-Year Plan envisages the further development of the Moscow coal basin. It is contemplated to build and put into operation in the basin, between 1946 and 1950, 66 new mines of an aggregate capacity of 18,800,000 tons, which will necessitate the prospecting of 135 new coal-fields in the Moscow district.

Thus the Moscow coal basin has marked gigantic progress during the three decades of Soviet power. The magnificent increase in plant is accompanied by equally splendid town development: whole sections of beautiful new homes, municipal palaces of culture, clubs, libraries, parks and athletic fields.



"True, a man does not have wings and in relation to the weight of his body and the weight of his muscles he is 72 times weaker than a bird. . . . But I think that he will fly, depending not on the strength of his muscles but on the strength of his intelligence. . . . A heavier-than-air machine will, in my opinion, provide the means for rapid flight,"

N. Zhukovsky

1898

NIKOLAI ZHUKOVSKY

(1847-1921)

"THE FATHER OF RUSSIAN AVIATION"—was how Professor Nikolai Zhukovsky was named in a decree of the Council of People's Commissars signed by Lenin and issued on December 2, 1920, on the occasion of the 50th anniversary of his scientific activity. Indeed, Zhukovsky's contributions to Russian aviation were exceedingly great. He worked out important theories on which the calculations of modern aircraft are based; he trained a large number of qualified aviation engineers and research workers for Soviet aviation; he founded leading research and educational aviation institutions.

An outstanding mathematician, Zhukovsky possessed exceptional ability in solving complex engineering problems.

His researches covered a vast range of subjects. He contributed to science over 180 works dealing with the most varied problems of science and engineering. With equal success he conducted research work on problems of pure mathematics, theoretical mechanics, astronomy, ballistics, building mechanics, hydraulics, aerodynamics, the theory of the aeroplane, etc.

Many of Zhukovsky's theories have won a permanent place in world science and are successfully applied by engineers throughout the world. His work presented a happy combination of theory and practice, and his findings always constituted a new step forward in the development of the given branch of science.

Even before aviation made its appearance Zhukovsky was a world-renowned authority in the field of mechanics, with numerous followers who had received their training under him at the Moscow University and the Moscow Higher School of Engineering. As early as the 'nineties he published a number of articles on the possibility of men flying on "heavier-than-air machines." He wrote a remarkable work in 1892 called *The Soaring of Birds* in which he proved the possibility of looping the loop on an aeroplane, twenty years before it was actually accomplished. Incidentally, this feat was first performed by a Russian flier, Captain Pyotr Nesterov, in 1913.

Of particular significance for modern aerohydrodynamics was Zhukovsky's famous theorem of the lift of the wing, which he formulated in 1906.

The end of 1908 and the beginning of 1909 marked a turning point in the development of aviation in Russia. Zhukovsky was often called upon to lecture on aviation before large gatherings. After one such lecture an "aeronautic group" was formed at the Moscow Higher School of Engineering, with Professor Zhukovsky as its honorary chairman.

The group lost no time in taking up practical work. By 1909 it already possessed gliders, on which its members made trial flights. With Zhukovsky's support the aeronautic group set up a laboratory at the Moscow Higher School of Engineering. In 1910 Zhukovsky had at his disposal one of the most advanced aerodynamic laboratories of the time. Its most valuable asset was a group of young enthusiasts, all students of the School of Engineering, who built by

their own efforts new apparatuses, instruments and models. The famous theory of the wing worked out by Professor Zhukovsky jointly with Sergei Chaplygin, was put to test in this laboratory. These two scientists were many years ahead of their colleagues in other countries. Today there is not a single book on aerodynamics which does not set forth this theory, or cite Zhukovsky's theorem of lift power, and contain a description of "Zhukovsky's wings."

In 1910 Zhukovsky and his followers achieved amazing success in working out the theory and methods of calculation for propellers. Similar theories began to appear in a number of countries only a decade later, beginning with approximately 1920.

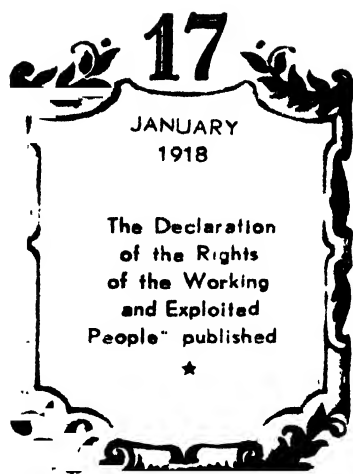
Two years later Zhukovsky formulated the still more advanced vortical theory of the propelling screw. Published in 1912, his work *Vortical Theory of the Propelling Screw* marked an epoch in the evolution of the screw theory. Altogether Zhukovsky wrote four articles on this theory, offering a single analysis for all cases of screw action, from the propeller and helicopter to ventilators and wind motors. The vortical theory first put forward by Zhukovsky in 1912 is used throughout the world today as a basis for screw calculations.

A salient feature of the Zhukovsky school was a striving to make the utmost use of theory for practical purposes.

Although the tsarist government took a skeptical view of aviation, the realization of its enormous role in modern warfare, apparent from the very beginning of the First World War, compelled the authorities to take notice of Zhukovsky. He was requested to organize theoretical aviation courses for the training of fliers and a Calculation and Testing Bureau under the Air Force Administration. However, Zhukovsky's efforts to create a large aviation research centre could have no success under the conditions of tsarist Russia. It was not until after the October Socialist Revolution that the scientist was able to realize his dreams. His offer made to the Soviet government to organize a Central Institute of Aerohydrodynamics for the development of Soviet aviation met with Lenin's approval and support.

A scientific centre was created in a very short time, and it soon became one of the world's largest and best known aviation research institutes. Zhukovsky headed this institute to the end of his days.

The tremendous importance of Zhukovsky's scientific and organizational contributions became more than ever apparent during the Great Patriotic War. His theories, which are applied today in the calculations for new types of aircraft; the highly qualified engineers whom he trained for institutes and industry; such institutions as the Central Institute of Aerohydrodynamics, the Military Aviation Academy and the Aviation Faculty of the Moscow Higher School of Engineering (now Moscow Aviation Institute), which were organized on his initiative and with his help, have played a decisive role in the growth of Soviet aviation and contributed to the victory of the Soviet people over the fascist invaders.



DECLARATION OF RIGHTS OF THE WORKING AND EXPLOITED PEOPLE

*(Adopted at the Third All-Russian Congress
of Soviets in January, 1918)*

* I *

- 1) Russia is hereby declared a republic of Soviets of Workers', Soldiers' and Peasants' Deputies. All power centrally and locally belongs to the Soviets.
- 2) The Soviet Russian Republic shall be constituted on the principle of a free union of free nations, as a federation of Soviet National Republics.

* II *

In pursuance of its fundamental aim of abolishing all forms of exploitation of man by man, of completely eliminating the division of society into classes, of mercilessly suppressing the exploiters, of establishing a socialist organization of society and of achieving the victory of Socialism in all countries, the Third All-Russian Congress of Soviets of Workers', Soldiers' and Peasants' Deputies further resolves:

- 1) In implementation of the socialization of the land, private property in land is hereby abolished, the entire land fund is declared to be the property of the people and is turned over to the toilers without any compensation, on the basis of equal tenure.

All forests, mineral resources and waters of national importance, as well as all livestock and implements, model estates and agricultural enterprises are declared to be national property.

- 2) As a first step towards completely vesting the property in factories, mills, mines, railways and other means of production and transport in the hands of the Workers' and Peasants' Soviet Republic, the Soviet laws on workers' control and on the Supreme Council of National Economy are hereby confirmed with the object of ensuring the authority of the working people over the exploiters.

- 3) The passing of property rights in all banks to the Workers' and Peasants' State is hereby confirmed as one of the requisites for the emancipation of the toiling masses from the yoke of capital.

- 4) In order to do away with the parasitic sections of society universal labour service is hereby instituted.

- 5) In order to ensure full power to the toiling masses, and in order to remove all possibility of the restoration of the power of the exploiters, the arming of the toilers, the creation of a socialist Red Army of workers and peasants and the complete disarming of the propertied classes are hereby decreed.



*** III ***

1) Expressing its firm determination to wrest mankind from the clutches of finance capital and imperialism, which have in this most criminal of wars drenched the earth in blood, the Third Congress of Soviets declares its wholehearted support for the policy of the Soviet government of tearing up the secret treaties, of organizing widespread fraternization between the workers and peasants of the now warring armies, and of achieving by the toilers at all costs by revolutionary means a democratic peace among the nations, without annexations and indemnities, and on the basis of the free self-determination of nations.

2) With the same purpose in view, the Third Congress of Soviets insists on a complete break with the barbarous policy of bourgeois civilization, which has built the well-being of the exploiters in a few chosen countries on the enslavement of hundreds of millions of toiling people in Asia, in the colonies in general, and in the small countries.

The Third Congress of Soviets acclaims the policy of the Council of People's Commissars, which has proclaimed the complete independence of Finland, has commenced the evacuation of troops from Persia and has declared freedom of self-determination for Armenia.

3) The Third Congress of Soviets regards the Soviet law on the annulment of the loans contracted by the government of the tsar, the landlords and the bourgeoisie as a first blow to international banking and finance capital, and expresses its conviction that the Soviet government will firmly pursue this path until the complete victory of the international workers' uprising against the yoke of capital is achieved.

*** IV ***

The Third All-Russian Congress of Soviets of Workers', Soldiers' and Peasants' Deputies maintains that at the present time, when a decisive struggle against the exploiters is being waged, there can be no room for exploiters in any of the organs of government. Power must be vested solely and entirely in the toiling masses and their authoritative representatives—the Soviets of Workers', Soldiers' and Peasants' Deputies.

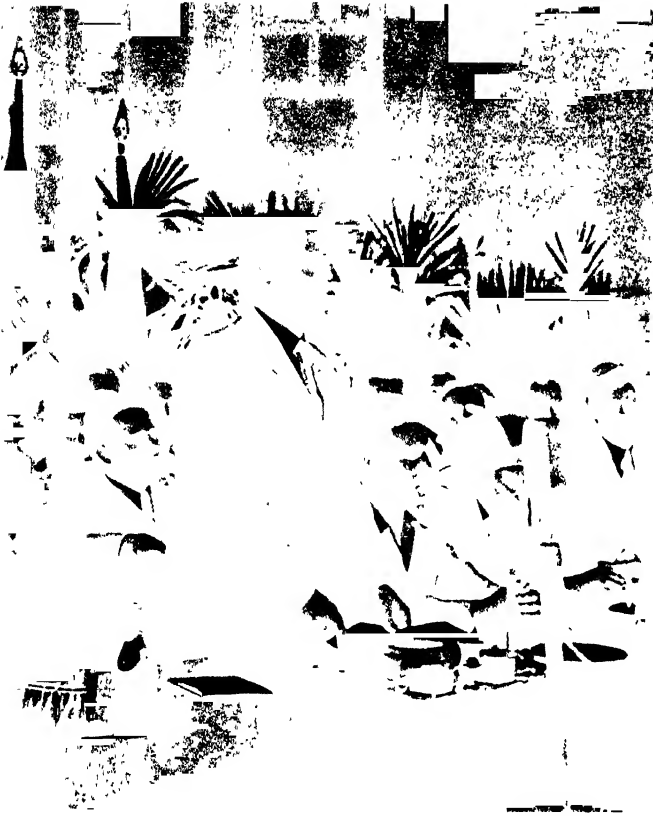
At the same time, striving to create a really free and voluntary, and therefore firm and stable, union of the toiling classes of all the nations of Russia, the Third Congress of Soviets limits its own functions to the establishment of the fundamental principles of a Federation of Soviet Republics of Russia, leaving it to the workers and peasants of each nation to decide independently at their own authoritative Soviet Congress whether they shall take part in the federal government and the other federal Soviet institutions, and on what basis.



NAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR



Members of the Executive Committee of the World Federation of Trade Unions honoured at a meeting held in the Gorky Central Park of Culture and Rest. *Left:* President of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and Vice-President of the Federation, Vassili Kuznetsov, is speaking. *Below:* A part of the audience. Moscow, June 1946



TRADE UNIONS IN THE U.S.S.R.

SOVIET TRADE UNIONS are voluntary mass organizations of worker- and salaried employees comprising a total membership of over 27,000,000. Any employee, regardless of his political or religious convictions, his race or nationality, may become a member of a trade union in the U.S.S.R.

In the Soviet Union, trade unions are built on industrial lines, that is to say, trade union members working in the factories and offices of any one branch of industry are organized into a single union which covers the whole industry.

All the leading organs of the trade unions, from top to bottom, are elective and accountable for their work. The secret ballot used in union elections fully insures the membership a democratic expression of their will. Every elected trade union body must render an account of its work to the members of the union; the membership has the right to recall the elected officers prior to the expiration of their term. This makes it fully possible for the masses to control the practical work of their trade unions.

Every trade union committee in a factory or office has permanent commissions which deal with specific questions, such as wages, labour protection, cultural and educational work, housing and home conditions, social insurance, etc. Each of these commissions is headed by a member of the trade union committee; the other members of the commission are picked from among the most active members of the union.

The highest trade union body at any factory or office is the general meeting or conference of its members, at which all questions concerning the work of the trade union are discussed, where the trade union committee and its various commissions report on their work and where the committee is elected, by secret ballot, as stated above.

The highest body of any trade union is its congress, which elects a central committee to direct the work of the union between congresses.

The Soviet trade union movement in its entirety is directed by the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions, which is elected at the All-Union Congress of the Trade Unions.

Soviet trade unions derive their funds from membership dues, amounting to 1 per cent of the wage or salary of each member, collected monthly. It is out of these sums that the trade union committee staffs are maintained, that the educational and physical culture work among the masses is carried on, and that material aid is rendered to members of the union.

Besides membership dues the trade unions also manage the state social insurance funds, which in 1946 amounted to 11,655,000,000 rubles, 3,000,000,000 rubles more than in 1945. These funds are spent on the payment of benefits to employees in case of sickness or other temporary disablement; on maternity and child birth benefits, on feeding infants and providing them with layettes, on old age and invalid pensions, on benefits paid to families upon the loss of their breadwinner, on Young Pioneer camps and extraschool work with children. The social insurance funds are also used by the Soviet trade unions to build, equip and maintain houses of rest, sanatoriums and prophylactic stations, and provide curative food for sick workers and office employees.

The activities of Soviet trade unions are very extensive and diversified. The fruits of these activities are inseparably connected with the general achievements of the working class in the U.S.S.R., which under the leadership of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) made the Great October Socialist Revolution, organized a socialist system of economy, abolished the exploitation of man by man, did away with unemployment, and brought about an all-sided improvement in the economic, social and living conditions of the working people.

During the last war the organized workers of the U.S.S.R. revealed great heroism and discipline, a high degree of political consciousness and profound patriotism—features that have always been characteristic of the Soviet working class.

On the initiative of the workers, engineers and technicians of the leading factories there developed during the war a country-wide movement of socialist emulation, the object of which was to fill orders for the front ahead of schedule to raise the productivity of labour to the highest point possible. This eminently patriotic movement of the workers was headed by the trade unions which rendered it daily practical assistance, gave it wide publicity and popularized the experience of the foremost workers for the benefit of the rest.

As a result of this movement labour productivity kept constantly rising, which insured the prompt performance of the principal wartime task—the uninterrupted supply, in increasing quantities, of arms, ammunition and equipment for the front.

But even under the difficult conditions prevailing during the war, the Soviet trade unions were constantly alive to the necessity of satisfying the daily needs and the cultural requirements of their members. In 1944 the average monthly wage in all industries was 54 per cent above 1941, and in some industries it had risen even more. The organization under the direction of the trade unions, of individual and collective vegetable gardens on publicly owned land, contributed greatly to the improvement of the workers' food supply. In 1944, 16,000,000 persons had their own vegetable gardens. Great attention was paid to families which had members in the service. Their material and living conditions were the trade unions' first concern.

After the victorious termination of the war the trade unions took an active part in drawing up the Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy of the U.S.S.R. in 1946-50.

This new Five-Year Plan, adopted by the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. in March 1946, was greeted by the working class of the Soviet Union as a militant program for assuring the further growth of the country's economic might and the improvement of the material, cultural and living conditions of the population. The socialist emulation movement for securing the fulfilment and overfulfilment of the plan has once again assumed nation-wide proportions. And again it is the trade unions who head this powerful movement of the millions of workers and salaried employees.

The multiplicity of their activities at home does not prevent the Soviet trade unions from devoting a great deal of attention to the international trade union movement, to strengthening its unity, and to the joint struggle of the working people for the complete eradication of fascism, for a secure peace and a better future for all toiling humanity.

The Anglo-Soviet Trade Union Committee set up in October 1941 not only facilitated the consolidation of friendly relations between the working class of the U.S.S.R. and that of Great Britain, but also the strengthening of unity among the workers on a wide international scale. On the initiative of this committee a preparatory committee was formed to convoke in London the World Trade Union Conference which laid the foundations for the World Federation of Trade Unions. Besides the Anglo-Soviet Trade Union Committee, a Franco-Soviet, and an American-Soviet Trade Union Committee were formed. The Soviet trade unions take an active part in the work of the World Federation of Trade Unions, one of whose vice-presidents is Vassili Kuznetsov, president of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions.

The session of the Executive Committee of the World Federation of Trade Unions, held in Moscow in June 1946, was of great importance in the matter of consolidating the friendly ties between the Soviet trade unions and the trade unions of other democratic countries. Those who took part in this meeting had every opportunity to convince themselves that the Soviet trade unions are sincere advocates of international unity and contribute their share towards making the World Federation of Trade Unions a militant and authoritative body in the fight for peace and better conditions for the working people all over the world.



SEMYON MAXIMENKO



BORIS NECHUNAYEV



YEGOR AGARKOV

WORKERS—STALIN PRIZE WINNERS



EKATERINA BARYSHNIKOVA



LUKA GOLOKOLOSOV

SEMYON MAXIMENKO

SEMYON MAXIMENKO was born in 1907 and at the age of sixteen went to work as mason on construction jobs.

He has won wide fame by evolving and employing the conveyor system in bricklaying. Maximenko attained outstanding success in Moscow in November 1937, when he set an all-Union record in high-speed bricklaying.

During the war Maximenko worked in Siberia, taking part in the extensive construction in the Eastern regions of the U.S.S.R. His

method of bricklaying has won general recognition and has been widely employed on construction jobs since 1944-45.

Maximenko is now a student of the Novosibirsk Building Institute.

In June 1946 Semyon Maximenko was awarded the Stalin Prize for rationalizing and introducing high-speed building methods which have considerably increased the productivity of labour and reduced the time required for the construction and restoration of residential and industrial buildings.

BORIS NECHUNAYEV

BORIS NECHUNAYEV was born in a worker's family in 1906. He worked as a carpenter on construction jobs in Moscow, in Kazakhstan, on the Kola Peninsula, in the Crimea, the Urals, Siberia and elsewhere.

Throughout his life Nechunayev strove to facilitate the work of the builders and to make it more productive by mechanization. He invented a whole series of highly productive wood-working ma-

chines. Many of these have become widely used and have been described in textbooks.

Nechunayev is now working as an instructor in the Ministry of Works for Heavy Industry.

In June 1946 Boris Nechunayev was awarded the Stalin Prize for rationalizing methods of production and introducing high-speed construction methods resulting in an increased productivity of labour.

YEGOR AGARKOV

YEGOR AGARKOV was born in a peasant family in Kursk region in 1912. In 1930 he moved to Kharkov and went to work on the construction of a big tractor plant. After the completion of the construction Agarkov decided to work in the industry and chose the trade of an electric welder.

A capable worker, he soon mastered his new trade and introduced improvements in the existing methods of work. Engineers became interested in his inventions and a book describing his method of electric welding was published in Kharkov.

During the war he worked as team leader of electric welders at a plant in the Urals. Improving the technology and organization of the

working process Agarkov proposed the merging of two teams and reducing the total number of workers in the new team but maintaining production on its former level. The plan worked and a number of workers was thus freed for other jobs.

Agarkov's initiative has met with great response in the country.

Agarkov is now studying at one of the Chelyabinsk technical institutes. At the Session of the Supreme Council of the U.S.S.R. in March 1946 he was elected to the post of people's assessor of the Supreme Court of the Soviet Union.

Yegor Agarkov was awarded a Stalin Prize in January 1946.

EKATERINA BARYSHNIKOVA

EKATERINA BARYSHNIKOVA was born in a peasant family in Moscow region in 1922. She subsequently moved to the city of Moscow where she went to work at the Kaganovich Ball-Bearing Plant.

During the war, when factories were particularly short of workers, Ekaterina Baryshnikova, employing a number of improvements, organized the work in her brigade so that each operator was now able to work two lathes instead of one without lowering the quality of the product.

A nation-wide movement for raising the productivity of labour was started amongst the youth; the purpose of the

movement was to increase production while employing fewer workers.

Twenty thousand brigades of workers in different parts of the country followed Baryshnikova's example with the result that 70,000 workers were transferred to other jobs where they were sorely needed.

By decision of the Council of People's Commissars of January 26, 1946, Ekaterina Baryshnikova, along with seven brigade leaders of other plants, was awarded the Stalin Prize for designing and employing devices and new types of instruments for mechanical work on metal and for rationalizing the technology of production to ensure a higher productivity of labour.

LUKA GOLOKOLOSOV

LUKA GOLOKOLOSOV comes from a long line of Donetsk miners. For twenty years he worked in mine No. 28, "Vengerovka," in the Donbas. He was forty when war broke out. He then joined the fighting forces, together with his two sons, and fought in the battles for the liberation of "Vengerovka" from the German invaders. By order of the command the experienced miner was left in the mine to take part in its restoration.

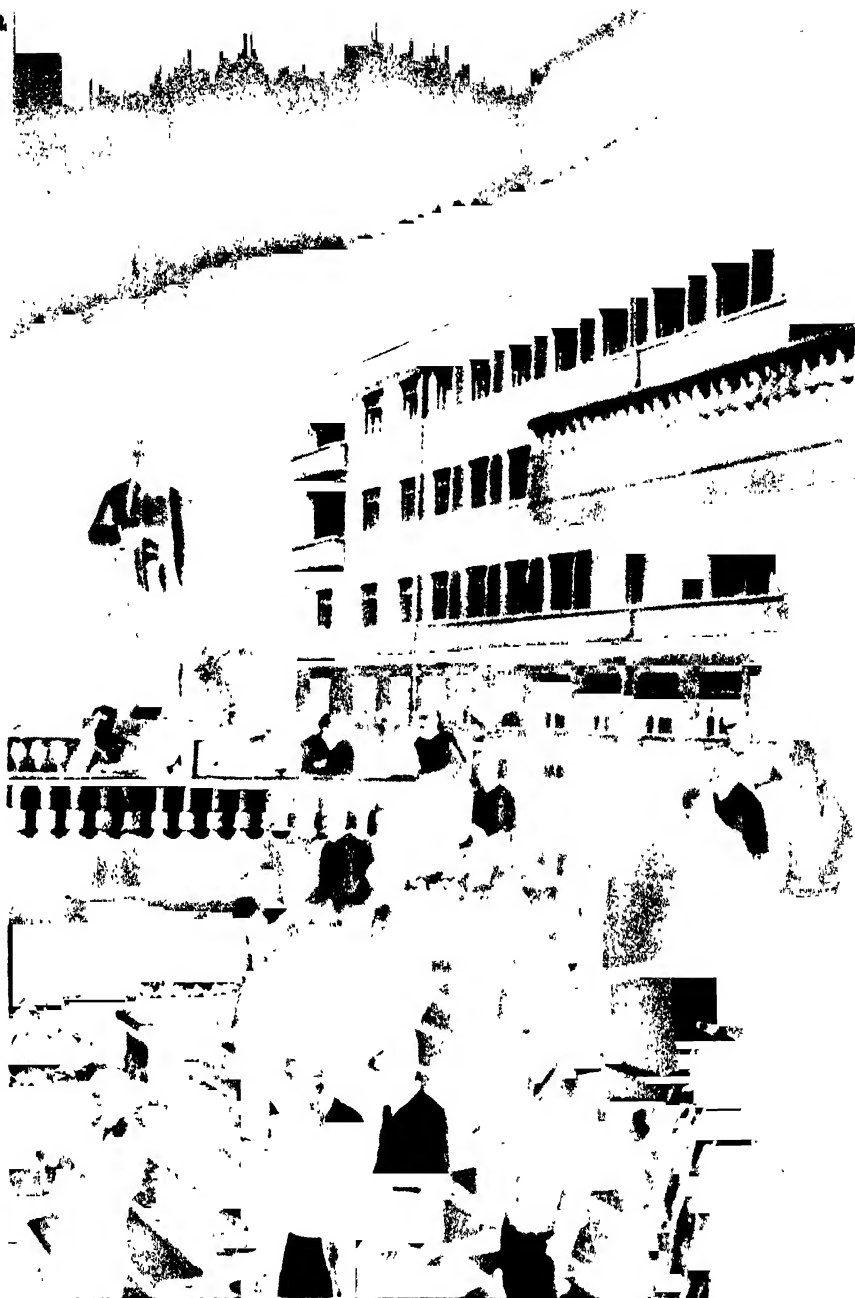
There Golokolosov showed himself a highly-inventive and resourceful miner. The management of the mine had formerly employed six

to seven miners for sinking shafts. Luka Golokolosov undertook to do this work alone and after a careful study of the properties of the veins and employing the most effective methods for sinking new shafts, Golokolosov succeeded in reducing the time required for this process to one-third or one-quarter, and in 1944 did five times his allotted quota of work.

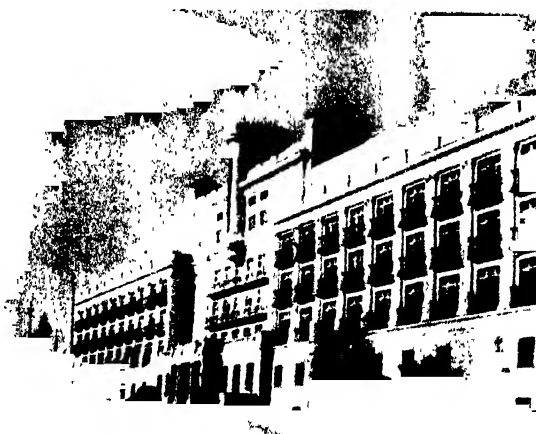
He was awarded the Stalin Prize for the introduction of new, advanced methods of labour organization into the mining industry, methods which considerably increased the output of coal and ore.

NAWAB SALAF JUNG BAHADUR

Sanatorium of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions,
Borzhomi, Georgian S.S.R.



Sanatorium for workers of the coal industry, Sochi, R.S.F.S.R.



Sanatorium in Kemer, Latvian S.S.R.

HEALTH PROTECTION IN THE U.S.S.R.

IN THE U.S.S.R. everything connected with public health is in the hands of the state and is provided for by the state budget. Anyone who falls ill has the right to receive highly-qualified treatment at dispensaries, clinics, hospitals, sanatoriums and at health resorts free of charge. The Soviet Constitution sets forth this right in Article 120, which ensures "free medical service for the working people and the provision of a wide network of health resorts for the use of the working people."

There has been a great increase in the number of medical establishments during the thirty years of Soviet power. This increase was halted by the war, when the fascist hordes plundered and destroyed thousands of medical institutions, but the first post-war years show that the halt was only temporary, as is evidenced by the following table:

	1913	Jan. 1, 1941	Jan. 1, 1946
Hospital beds	178,550	735,423	737,322
Dispensaries and clinics (total number)	5,597	26,973	30,112
of which			
Dispensaries and clinics (urban)	1,230	13,461	12,242
Rural medical centres	4,367	13,512	17,870

There are specialized dispensaries to combat lung diseases, nervous ailments, cancer, etc. These institutions, which are equipped with up-to-date apparatuses for diagnosis and treatment, do not limit their work to rendering assistance to the patients who come to them; they investigate the causes for the outbreaks of disease, they examine the members of the family of a sick person for symptoms of incipient disease, and carry on educational work in hygiene among the population at large.

A notable role in preventing and combating disease is played by the dispensaries and clinics at industrial enterprises. Every large enterprise in the Soviet Union has its own dispensary or clinic, which besides rendering treatment to the personnel works jointly with the labour protection inspector to prevent disease and industrial accidents.

Private medical practice is not forbidden in the U.S.S.R., and everyone has the right to seek the advice of a private physician. Free medical service is so widespread, however, that private practice occupies an insignificant place in the general scheme of health protection.

All public health work is conducted according to plan and is directed by the Ministry of Health of the U.S.S.R. (which was established in 1918 as the People's Commissariat of Health). In the various localities there are Departments of Health supervised by the Soviets of Working People's Deputies.

A feature of Soviet public health protection is its emphasis on prophylaxis—the direction of efforts and means toward preventing illnesses and safeguarding the population against sickness. In addition to the health bodies, all organs of Soviet power and the Soviet public at large concern themselves with prophylactic work. In industry measures are taken to provide healthful working conditions; not commercial interests but the interests of the population, and, first and foremost, the protection of health, are pursued in municipal construction and organization; public catering maintains a high standard of hygiene; by interesting the public in questions of health protection the hygienic standards of the entire population are raised.

With public health protection in the hands of the state, it is pos-

sible to resolve questions of "medical ethics" simply and easily; the doctor's attitude toward his colleagues is a healthy one; because he is assured of employment, a doctor does not compete with other doctors for a private practice and does not resort to methods which have been time and again denounced by the profession as amoral and unethical. The relations between doctor and patient are placed on a normal foundation; they are not based on the sale and purchase of treatment but on the desire of the medical man to cure the patient as rapidly and efficiently as possible, and also to carry out prophylactic measures to prevent the spread of disease. Thus we see that in the Soviet Union the medical profession, the most humanitarian of all professions, has been placed on a sound moral foundation and enjoys most favourable conditions for development.

In addition to guarding the health of the man on the job, the Soviet state assures him and his family the necessary conditions for rest and recreation. Throughout the country there are thousands of rest centres and sanatoriums, which accommodate as many as two million people annually. The famous Caucasian spas, the resorts along the southern coast of the Crimea, in Odessa and other points on the Black Sea coast, at Kemerli (in the Latvian S.S.R.), and elsewhere provide the working people all forms of sanatorium treatment, including mud baths, water cures, and sun and climatotherapeutic treatment.

Special attention is devoted to mother and child care. According to Soviet law working women receive a maternity leave of thirty-five days before confinement and forty-two days after, during which time they receive full pay. There is a ramified network of lying-in hospitals, maternity welfare centres, and children's nurseries, hospitals and sanatoriums. Children's summer camps have been established in the most healthful and picturesque spots in the country. The largest of these camps is Artek, on the beautiful southern shore of the Crimea, where thousands of children annually spend their vacations.

Thus we see that an integral system of mother and child care exists in the Soviet Union.

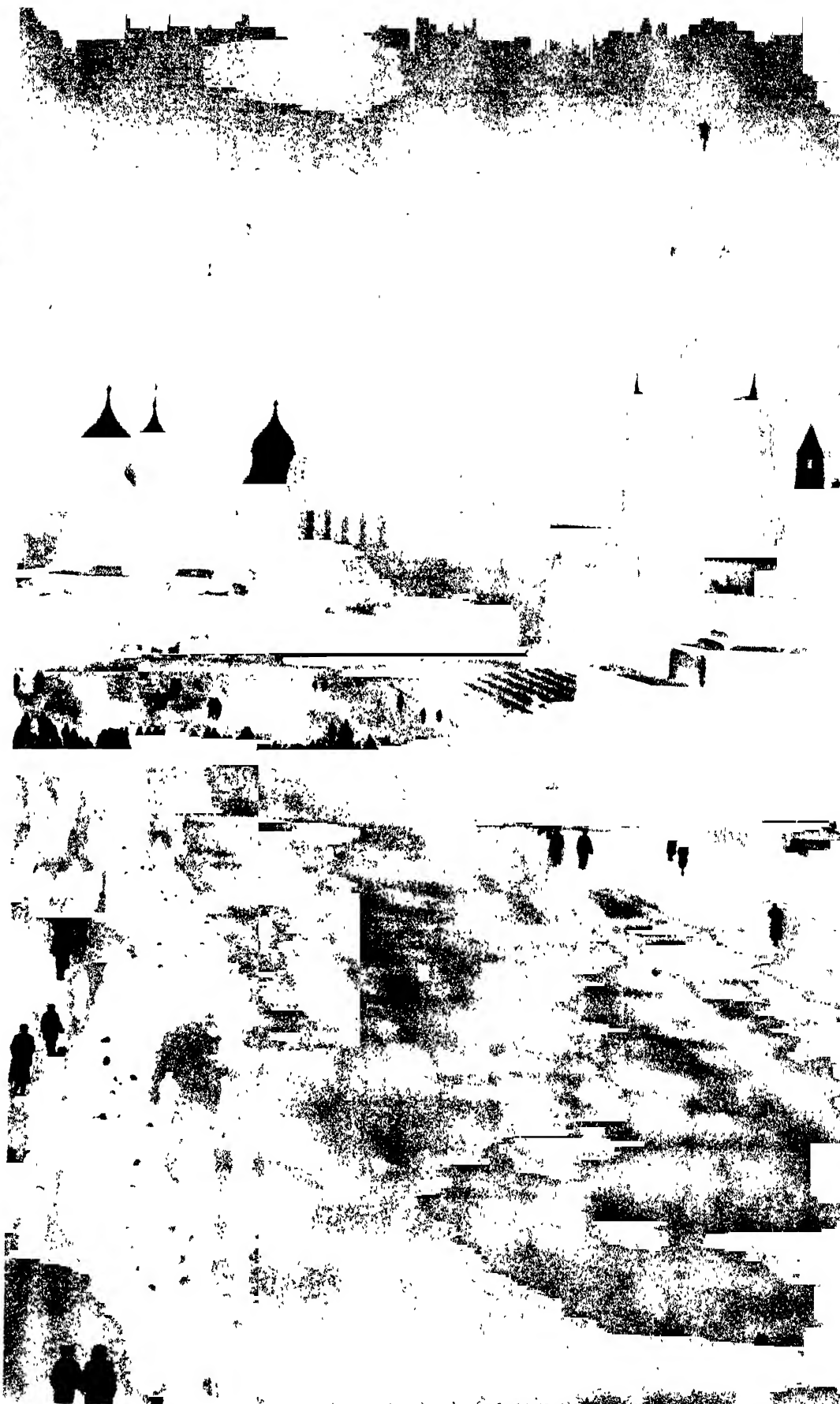
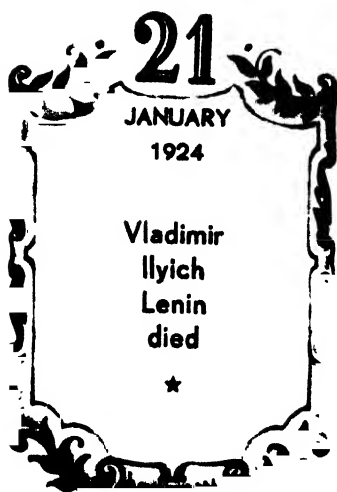
Soviet medicine came through the difficult trials of the war with flying colours: more than 70 per cent of the casualties were returned to active service; neither in the army nor among the civilian population were there any epidemic outbreaks, the usual concomitant of war.

The Soviet government has always attached great importance to medical science. A Scientific Medical Council composed of prominent specialists was established by the People's Commissariat of Health in 1918. There are specialized research institutes in all branches of medicine.

Today the Academy of Medical Sciences of the U.S.S.R., established in 1944, is the country's centre of scientific medical thought. The first president of this Academy was Academician Nikolai Burdenko, who died in 1946. Burdenko won world renown by his brain operations and was the founder and head of the Institute of Neurosurgery, one of the largest institutions of its kind in the world. During the war he did notable work as chief surgeon of the Soviet Army.

The eminent pathologist Nikolai Anichkov was elected to the presidency of the Academy after Academician Burdenko's death. Anichkov is especially well-known for his work in the field of arteriosclerosis and high blood pressure.

The Academy has a five-year plan of work which is the foundation for all the medical research conducted in the country. The extensive scope of this plan opens up broad prospects for the development of medical research in the U.S.S.R.



FROM ALL CORNERS OF THE COUNTRY SOVIET PEOPLE THRONG TO THE LENIN MAUSOLEUM. MOSCOW, RED SQUARE

THE GREAT OATH

*(From a speech delivered by J. V. Stalin
at the Second All-Union Congress of Soviets,
January 26, 1924)*

DEPARTING FROM US, COMRADE LENIN ADJURED US TO HOLD HIGH AND GUARD THE PURITY OF THE GREAT TITLE OF MEMBER OF THE PARTY. WE VOW TO YOU, COMRADE LENIN, THAT WE WILL FULFIL YOUR BEHEST WITH CREDIT!...

DEPARTING FROM US, COMRADE LENIN ADJURED US TO GUARD THE UNITY OF OUR PARTY AS THE APPLE OF OUR EYE. WE VOW TO YOU, COMRADE LENIN, THAT THIS BEHEST, TOO, WE WILL FULFIL WITH CREDIT!...

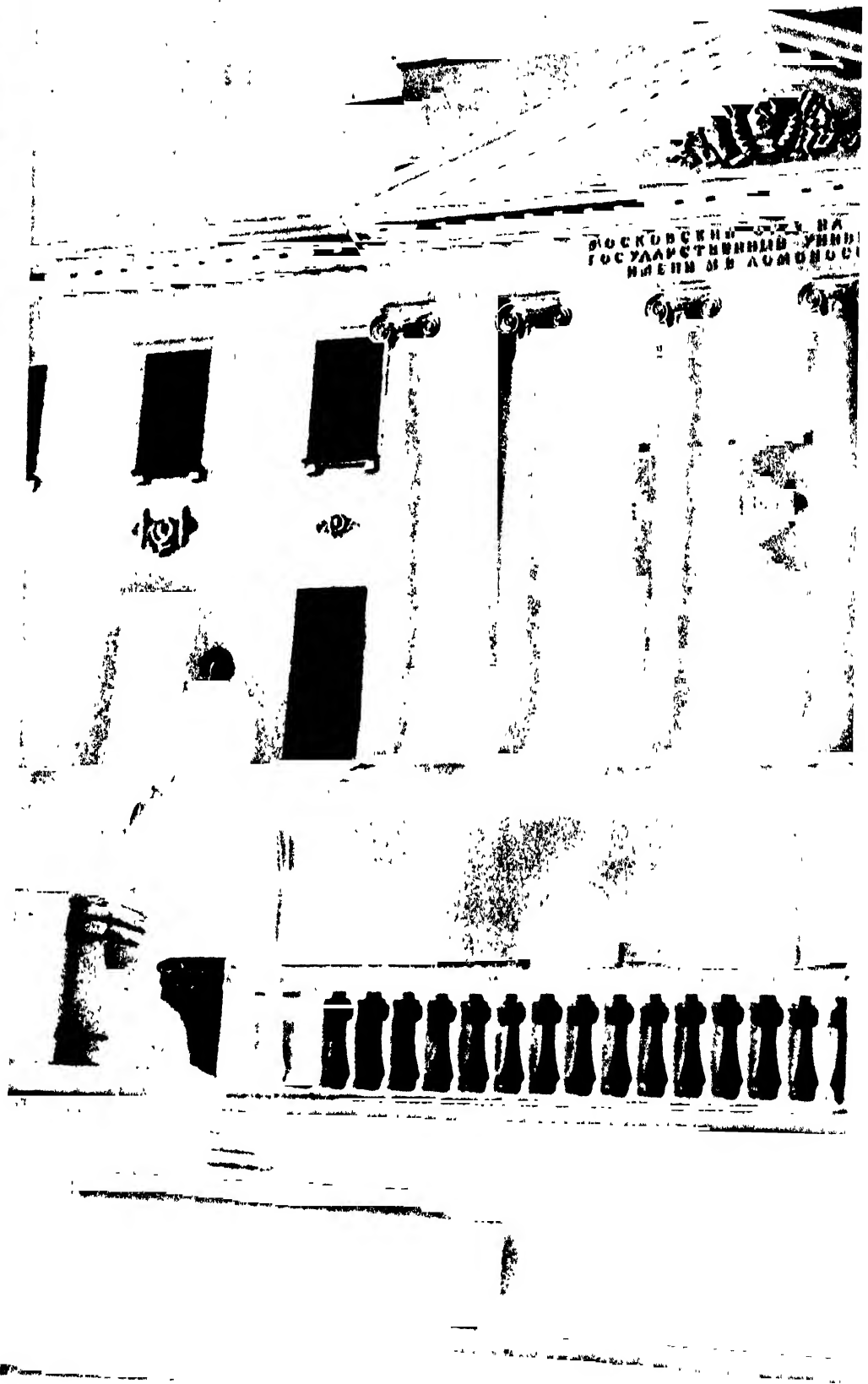
DEPARTING FROM US, COMRADE LENIN ADJURED US TO GUARD AND STRENGTHEN THE DICTATORSHIP OF THE PROLETARIAT. WE VOW TO YOU, COMRADE LENIN, THAT WE WILL SPARE NO EFFORTS TO FULFIL THIS BEHEST, TOO, WITH CREDIT!...

DEPARTING FROM US, COMRADE LENIN ADJURED US TO STRENGTHEN WITH ALL OUR MIGHT THE ALLIANCE OF THE WORKERS AND THE PEASANTS. WE VOW TO YOU, COMRADE LENIN, THAT THIS BEHEST, TOO, WE WILL FULFIL WITH CREDIT!...

DEPARTING FROM US, COMRADE LENIN ADJURED US TO CONSOLIDATE AND EXTEND THE UNION OF REPUBLICS. WE VOW TO YOU, COMRADE LENIN, THAT THIS BEHEST, TOO, WE WILL FULFIL WITH CREDIT!...

MORE THAN ONCE DID LENIN POINT OUT TO US THAT THE STRENGTHENING OF THE RED ARMY AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF ITS CONDITION IS ONE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT TASKS OF OUR PARTY.

LET US VOW THEN, COMRADES, THAT WE WILL SPARE NO EFFORT TO STRENGTHEN OUR RED ARMY AND OUR RED NAVY.



LOMONOSOV STATE UNIVERSITY IN MOSCOW

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE U.S.S.R.

IN TSARIST RUSSIA higher education was a prerogative of the landed nobility and the bourgeoisie.

The very first decree passed by the Soviet government with regard to higher education abolished all racial, social and other distinctions that restricted enrolment in higher educational institutions during the tsarist regime. Education was proclaimed free of charge and government scholarships were granted to the overwhelming majority of the students. In order to facilitate entry into the higher educational institutions of a broader contingent of young people from the toiling classes, the government organized free preparatory courses and so-called "workers' faculties," where young men and women received preliminary instruction before entering a school of higher education.

As a result of the generous support lent by the government, the number of higher educational institutions as well as of students enlisted therein, increased at a rapid pace.

In tsarist Russia there were 91 higher schools with a roll of 112,000 students. Most of these schools were concentrated in large centres such as Moscow, St. Petersburg, Kiev, Kharkov and several others. Throughout the entire territory of Transcaucasia there was but one school of higher education. On the territory of the present Central Asiatic republics, as well as in the Far East, higher schools did not exist at all.

In the fifth year of its existence the young Soviet country already had 272 higher educational establishments, which is triple the number that existed in tsarist Russia, and the number of students reached 222,000.

When the Civil War was ended the Soviet government made particular effort to improve the higher school system and to strengthen its financial and technical foundation. During the period of socialist industrialization of the country higher education in the U.S.S.R. developed in full accord with the general plan for the advancement of national economy and culture.

In the years embraced by the Stalin Five-Year Plans the higher schools throughout the Soviet Union trained almost a million specialists in all fields of national economy. These specialists played a significant role in the social and technological reconstruction of the country and in strengthening its military power. They are intellectuals of a new type, Soviet intellectuals blood-bound to the people and loyal to the cause of building socialism. A large number of prominent scientists, inventors and masters of the fine arts, many of them known far beyond the borders of their country, have received their education in Soviet higher schools. Academicians Sobolev, Satpaev, Lyenko, Alikhanov, Shirshov, Khristianovich and a number of others, as well as such distinguished composers, artists and writers as Shostakovich, Khachaturyan, K. Simonov, Korneichuk, Ulanova, Oistrakh and many others, are brilliant examples of the new Soviet intelligentsia.

The number of higher educational institutions as well as student enrolment is steadily expanding: in 1940-41 the Soviet Union had 782 such institutions with 560,000 students.

The growth in the number of higher educational institutions is accompanied by their systematic geographical distribution over the territory of the U.S.S.R. New centres for special or professional instruction have been created and are rapidly developing in the Urals, Siberia and the Far East, also in the national republics. The formation in the national republics of a native intelligentsia is one of the prime achievements of Soviet national policy.

Higher schools have suffered great damage from the war. The German fascist barbarians destroyed 334 higher educational establishments which had an enlistment of 233,000 students. They carried away the valuable equipment of laboratories and research cabinets and burned millions of books.

However, despite the extreme difficulties of wartime the higher schools trained 300,000 specialists for the nation during the years of war. At the same time the higher educational institutions conducted serious research work aimed at

technological perfection in industry and introducing new methods of production.

The rehabilitation of higher educational establishments destroyed by the German vandals was commenced while the war was still raging, and at the present time the Soviet Union boasts 800 higher schools incorporating 632,000 students. This means that the number of higher schools and their contingent of students have not only reached, but surpassed the pre-war level. The college of professors and teachers in the higher schools now numbers 65,000 members.

In order to carry out Stalin's majestic plan for the post-war development of our country, our national economy will require hundreds of thousands of young specialists in various branches of knowledge.

In the course of the fourth Five-Year Plan period (1946-50) the higher educational institutions are called upon to train 602,000 specialists of highest qualification.

Soviet industry and construction will receive a supplement of about 150,000 specialists—a large reinforcement worthy of the titanic problems set by the fourth Five-Year Plan.

A highly important task now confronting the country is the necessity to prepare teachers for the elementary and secondary schools. Due to the war the implementation of universal compulsory education for children over seven years of age had to be suspended in some places. It will be fully reinstated, however, by 1950; the number of schools will then reach 193,000 with an attendance of 31,800,000 pupils.

This program calls for a large number of teachers. Over 40 per cent of all graduates from schools of higher education during the period of the fourth Five-Year Plan will be pedagogues. Furthermore, some 300,000 teachers for the elementary classes will be trained in pedagogical schools.

In order to carry out the provisions of the new Five-Year Plan with regard to agricultural development, the higher educational institutions will train about 50,000 agronomists, veterinarians and other specialists in agriculture.

A sizable array of specialists will likewise be turned out by other higher schools. Thus, 100,000 physicians will be graduated from medical schools and faculties, and up to 30,000 lawyers and economists from colleges of jurisprudence and economics.

To cope with these tasks new educational establishments will be founded and the contingents of students in existing ones enlarged. During the school year of 1946-47 state universities have already been set up in Kishinev and Uzhgorod, as well as a technical institute of the fishing industry in Vladivostok, a medical institute in Vitebsk, an institute of theatrical art in Tallinn, an institute of physical culture in Lvov and a number of various educational establishments in other towns.

Together with the expansion of the school network all necessary measures are being taken to perfect the quality standards of instruction.

The huge tasks set before Soviet schools of higher education necessitated a reorganization of the administrative body. In April 1946 the government established a Ministry of Higher Education of the U.S.S.R., which has taken over more than 300 educational establishments from other ministries and departments. Only transport, medical and pedagogical institutes, as well as higher schools devoted to art and physical culture have been left under the auspices of the respective departments. Scientific and methodological supervision over all higher educational institutions, irrespective of under whom they operate, rests with the Ministry of Higher Education of the U.S.S.R. This permits for the concentration in one guiding centre of all matters pertaining to the training of specialists for all fields of national economy and culture throughout the Soviet Union.

Enjoying the care and support of the government and the people, the Soviet higher school is successfully solving the problems placed before it by the post-war Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the country's national economy.

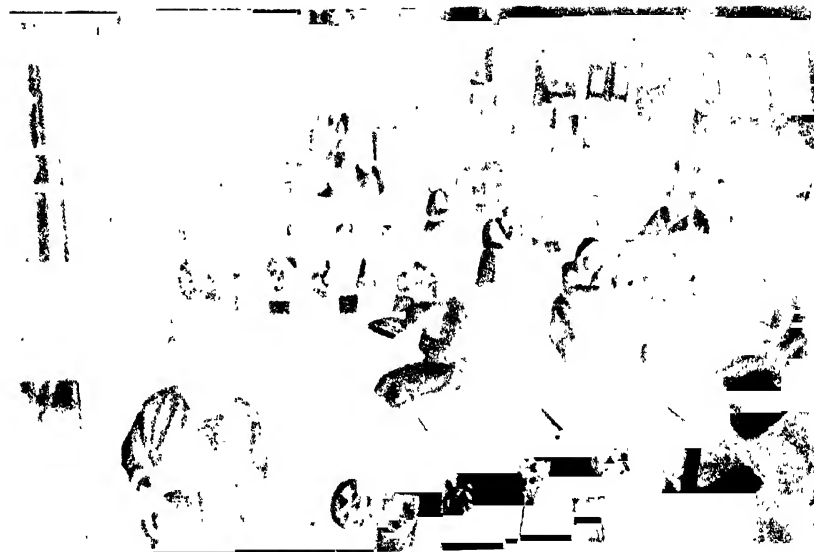


LOMONOSOV STATE UNIVERSITY IN MOSCOW. ONE OF THE LECTURE HALLS

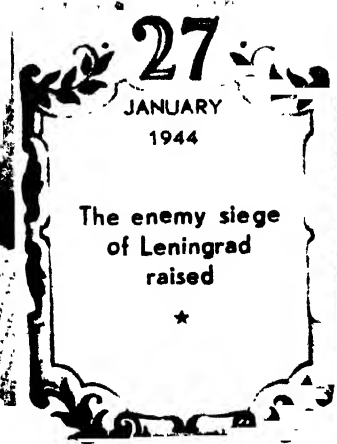


The Department of Anatomy and Physiology of
Plants at the Tbilisi State University. Students
M. Nadiradze and K. Abesadze study transpiration
in plants

NAJMA - 62107



Students of the Medical Department of the
Kazakh State University in the bones museum.
Alma-Ata, Kazakh S.S.R.



Battery of guns in the Leningrad A. A. defences. 1941

In besieged Leningrad. The *Bolshevik* plant producing armaments for the front. 1941



HEROIC LENINGRAD

THE CAPTURE OF LENINGRAD loomed large in the plans of the Nazi command. The Hitlerites looked upon the city not only as a mighty shield protecting the whole of the country's northwest; they also took into consideration its enormous political and economic importance. The city of Lenin was odious to the Germans as the incarnation of the Socialist Revolution and Soviet culture, as living testimony to the Russian people's indomitable spirit.

Anyone who has lived in Leningrad the last twenty years knows how much the city has changed in appearance, how magnificent blocks of modern houses have taken the place of the old, filthy quarters on its outskirts, and how much the new wide thoroughfares, lined with big, bright-roomed houses, and stadiums, palaces of culture and other modern features, have added to the Leningrad scene.

Leningrad became a rich wellspring of technical thought, a mighty workshop enriching the country. The first Soviet tractors, passenger automobiles, blooming mills and turbines were produced in Leningrad, as were the first powerful KV tanks, the first Soviet synthetic rubber, aluminium, magnesium, etc.

The city's industrial output included hundreds of new products. The imprint "Made in Leningrad" was always a guarantee of first-class quality and workmanship.

In 1940 Leningrad's industries produced almost 11 times as much as in 1913. During the second Five-Year Plan period (1933-37) the capacity of its electric power system increased 82 per cent, and by 1942 it was to have doubled.

The enemy realized the importance of Leningrad, this citadel of Socialism in the Soviet northwest. Against this objective he rushed dozens of his best divisions, an air fleet and an array of tank units. But the troops of the Leningrad front, the Baltic sailors and the city's civilian population, offered stout resistance and stopped the enemy within a few kilometres of the city walls.

The enemy dug in, forming a circle around this metropolis of the north. Neither their frenzied air raids nor their methodical shelling brought the Germans success. The big city was left without fuel and light, was faint with hunger, but there was no interruption of its intense, self-sacrificing work for the battle line. It became the arsenal of the Leningrad front, manufacturing automatics, machine guns, trench mortars, shells, mines, grenades and guns.

When coal gave out they heated boilers and furnaces with peat and wood. When they had no more coke they used anthracite in the foundries of the ammunition plants. It would take books to describe the fortitude, enumerate the heroic deeds of these people, who summoned all their energies to prevent even one day's, one hour's interruption in Leningrad's work for the front.

It was a mortal combat that raged without stop for two and a half years. The needs of the front were paramount; everything was made for direct combat use.

In January 1943 the Soviet Army broke the blockade in the region of Schlüsselburg. This made it possible to build a new railway, which linked up Leningrad with "Mainland," as the besieged population called the rest of the country. The Soviet troops prepared to assume the offensive. When the zero hour arrived the Leningrad front, commanded by Marshal Govorov, delivered the enemy a crushing blow from two sides simultaneously. The German Nord group was put to the rout, its remnants fleeing to Estonia.

In the summer of 1944 the Soviet troops crashed through the strongly fortified Mannerheim Line and liquidated the Finnish forces on the Karelian peninsula.

Thus the Soviet Army frustrated the Nazi plan to seize the City of Leningrad.

Any account of the blockade of Leningrad must make special mention of the fact that many of its biggest factories had been evacuated far to the rear, leaving in the city only 30 per cent of its pre-war industrial equipment, yet Leningrad continued to produce a steady supply of military goods, as stated above, and not only for the Leningrad front but for the needs of the entire country. Making detours, with lights extinguished, constantly exposed to the danger of artillery and mortar bombardment, trains would leave Leningrad in the dead of night, and, proceeding along a narrow strip of land won back in January 1943, emerge with goods made while the blockade was still in progress.

The city's plants mastered the production of about 200 new items, ranging from new kinds of gunpowder, manufactured in the country for the first time, to new types of war vessels. The constant paternal solicitude Stalin displayed for the city, the love which the whole country felt for it, was answered by filial devotion. Leningrad did credit to its name; the fire and will power that was Lenin's found embodiment in its deeds.

Thousands of officers and soldiers, of working men and women, of scientists and engineers distinguished themselves in the historic battle for the city.

One hundred fifty thousand shells, 5,000 high explosive and 100,000 incendiary bombs fell on Leningrad. Not a building in the city but had suffered damage in one way or another. And no sooner had the invader been driven off than the work of rehabilitating the city began on a grand scale.

For conspicuous service rendered the country by the working people of Leningrad, for the valour and heroism, the discipline and staunchness they displayed in the struggle with the German invaders, the city, on January 27, 1945, was awarded the Order of Lenin.

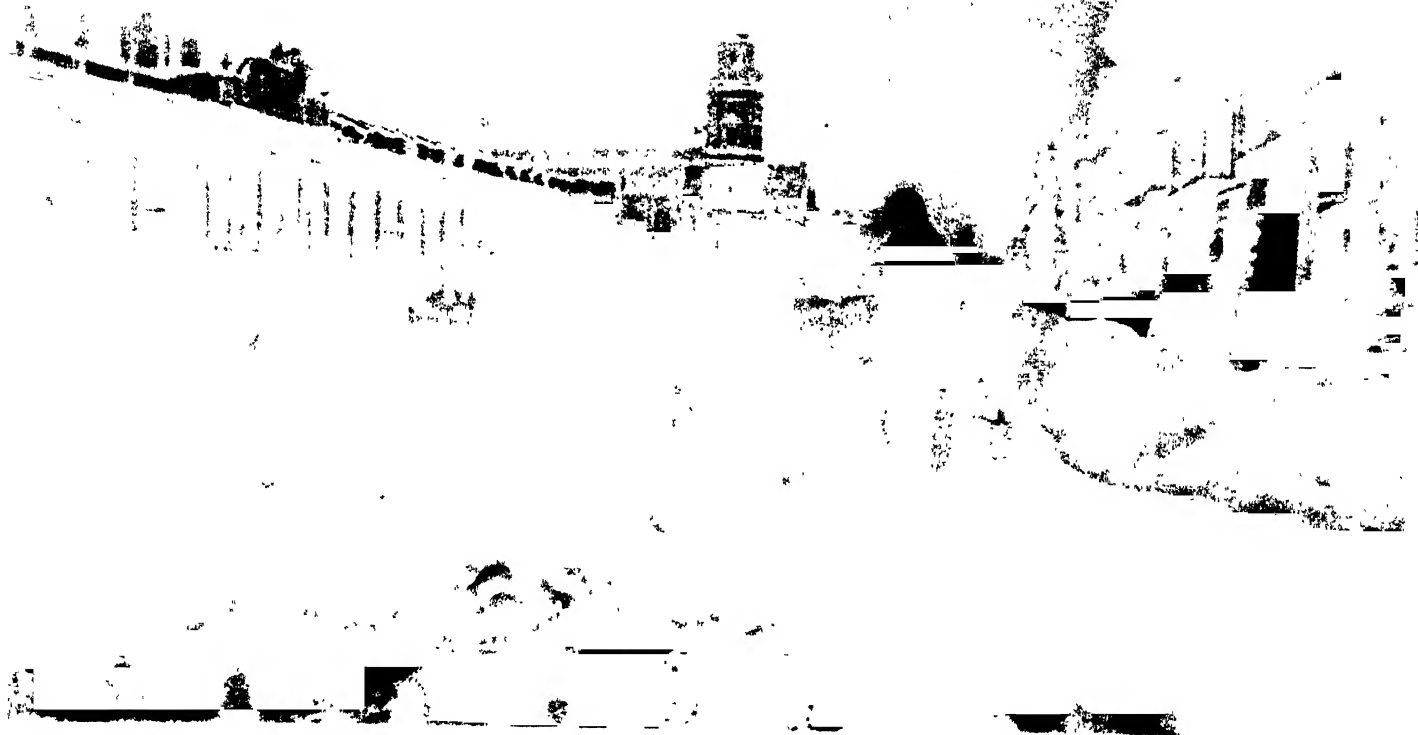
A resident of Leningrad listening to the radio broadcast of a Soviet Information Bureau communiqué during the siege



Artillery bombardment of Nevsky Prospect. Leningrad, 1941

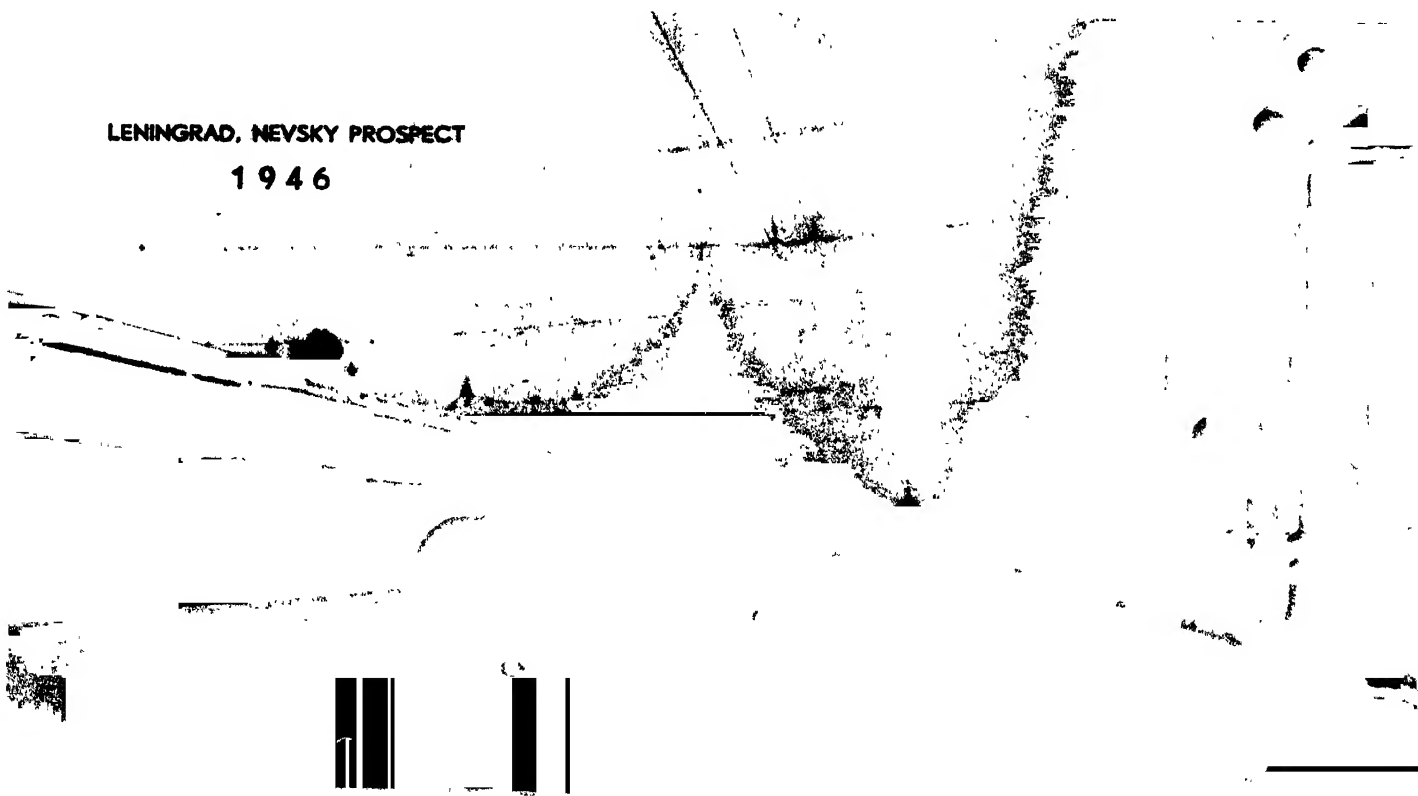
LENINGRAD, NEVSKY PROSPECT

1941



LENINGRAD, NEVSKY PROSPECT

1946





SOVIET CINEMA

OF ALL THE ARTS, THE CINEMA IS THE MOST IMPORTANT
TO US.

LENIN

IN THE HANDS OF SOVIET POWER, THE CINEMA IS A GREAT
AND INESTIMABLE FORCE.

THE CINEMA, WHICH HAS EXCEPTIONAL POSSIBILITIES FOR
SPIRITUALLY INFLUENCING THE MASSES, HELPS THE WORKING
CLASS AND ITS PARTY TO REAR THE LABOURING PEOPLE IN
THE SPIRIT OF SOCIALISM, ORGANIZE THE MASSES FOR THE
FIGHT FOR SOCIALISM, RAISE THEIR CULTURE AND POLITICAL
FIGHTING CAPACITY.

STALIN

NEW YORK: WORLD COUNCIL FOR DEMOCRACY



THE CINEMA IN THE U.S.S.R.

ON AUGUST 27, 1919, Vladimir Ilyich Lenin signed a decree "On subordinating all of the photographic and cinematographic trade and industry to the People's Commissariat of Education." This decree laid the foundation for Soviet cinematography as a branch of socialist culture developed and supervised by the state.

At the present time Soviet cinematography is within the jurisdiction of the Ministry for Cinematography of the U.S.S.R. It constitutes one of the branches of the national economy of the country, and is planned and financed by the government. The production of moving pictures, the renting-out of films, the building and maintenance of motion-picture theatres and the manufacture of cinema appliances and film are all directed from one centre.

The Soviet cinema is distinguished for its high ideological content. Soviet films truthfully and expressively portray contemporaneity; they are imbued with the national spirit and therefore profoundly move the spectators.

Such outstanding works of art as *Cruiser Potemkin*, *Mother*, and *The End of St. Petersburg* were created in the very first years of Soviet power, at the time of silent motion pictures. They were followed by sound films produced during the period of the socialist industrialization of the country and the collectivization of its agriculture (such as *Counter-Plan*, *Member of the Government*, *The Teacher*, *Komsomolsk*, *The Tractor Operators*, *The Great Citizen*), which depict the unparalleled achievements of emancipated labour and the fervour of socialist construction, and by remarkable films about the leaders of the Great October Revolution, the founders of the Soviet state Vladimir Lenin and Joseph Stalin (*Lenin in October*, *Lenin in 1918*, *The Man with the Gun* and *The Vyborg Side*).

This period saw also the production of highly artistic films which told of events from the Civil War or reproduced pages from the history of the U.S.S.R. and gave portraits of outstanding Russians—military leaders, scientists and national heroes—*Chapayev*, *Shchors*, *The Deputy of the Baltics*, *We Are from Kronstadt*, *Alexander Nevsky*, *Minin and Pozharsky*, *Suvorov*, *Peter I. Bogdan Khmel'nitsky*.

Of the films for children and youths the following deserve special mention: *Captain Grant's Children*, *The Fifteen-Year-Old Captain* and the film-trilogy based on the works of Maxim Gorky—*Childhood*, *In the World* and *My University Days*.

The best works of Russian and foreign classical and modern literature have been screened in recent years, and a considerable number of popular-scientific, educational and documentary films has been put out.

On the eve of the Great Patriotic War Soviet cinematography was the first to shoot anti-fascist films—*Professor Mamlock*, *The Oppenheim Family*, *Peat-Bog Soldiers*, *If War Comes Tomorrow*, which exposed fascist man-hatred, obscurantism and barbarism.

During the war, despite extreme hardships, despite evacuation, and enemy-wrecked cinema studios, the Soviet cinema workers created striking films about the heroic struggle of the Soviet people against the German invaders (*The Vow*, *The Turning Point*, *Rainbow*, *Zoya*, No. 217, *Invasion*, *Secretary of the Party District Committee*, *The Unvanquished*, *She Defended Her Country*).

Soviet cameramen worked with supreme courage at the war fronts, filming the Soviet people's heroic struggle for their honour and independence. They took pictures of war scenes and recorded events of great historical importance on three million metres of film. Part of this material has been used in various documentary films and newsreels; the rest called "Cinema Annals of the Great Patriotic War" was preserved for future reference. Outstanding among the documentary films are

The Rout of the German Troops at Moscow, *Leningrad at War*, *Stalingrad*, *Black Sea Sailors*, *People's Avengers*, *Battle of Orel*, *Liberation of the Ukraine*, *Berlin*, *Defeat of Japan*, *Victory Parade*, which testify to the high artistic and technical skill of the Soviet cameramen. The Central Newsreel Studio in Moscow and twenty-one newsreel studios in other parts of the country systematically and skilfully film the everyday life and happenings in the various republics, territories and regions.

Soviet cinematography has such world-renowned directors as Sergei Eisenstein, Vsevolod Pudovkin, Ivan Pyryev, Friedrich Ermler, Sergei and Georgi Vassiliev, Mikhail Romm, Sergei Yutkevich and Grigori Alexandrov, and no less distinguished directors of documentary films—Ilya Kopalin and Leonid Varlamov. The number of motion-picture actors and actresses has grown steadily: Lyubov Orlova, Marina Ladynina, Tamara Makarova, Galina Vodianitskaya, Nikolai Cherkassov, Boris Chirkov, Mikhail Zharov, the late Boris Shchukin who was the first to play the part of Lenin, Mikhail Gelovani, who plays the part of Stalin, Boris Babochkin, who played the part of Chapayev, have all won wide popularity.

Along with Russian cinematography, the cinema art of the national republics of the Soviet Union has also been growing and developing. Since the establishment of Soviet power cinema studios were set up in the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Uzbekistan, Turkmenia and Kazakhstan. These studios have to their credit outstanding films: *Arsenal and Earth*—directed by Alexander Dovzhenko, and *Big Life*, *Two Buddies*, and *This Happened in Donbas*—directed by Leonid Lukov, were produced in the Ukraine; *The Vow*, *The Great Glow*, *Arsen* and *Georgi Saakadze* were produced by Mikhail Chiaureli in Georgia; *Zangezur* and *David Bek* were directed by Ali Bek-Nazarov in Armenia, etc.

Soviet films have repeatedly won distinction at international cinema festivals. Thus, for example, at the Cannes cinema festival in 1946, the first prizes were awarded to the Soviet documentary film *Berlin*, the newsreel *Youth of Our Country* and the technicolour film *The Stone Flower*.

The workers of Soviet cinematography have been doing extensive experimental work in their endeavours to find new means of expression in cinema art. Dimensional multiplication, technicolour and stereoscopic films have their devotees, whose work opens vast possibilities for the further development of the cinema, this "art for the millions."

The existing cinema studios will be reconstructed and new ones will be built by the end of the Five-Year Plan period. The plan for the development of Soviet cinematography provides for an annual production of from eighty to one hundred films, up to fifty popular-scientific films, up to one hundred and eighty educational, and many hundreds of documentary films and newsreels. Accordingly, great numbers of trained personnel will be required—directors, actors, cameramen, scenario writers, painters, economists and other cinema specialists. These specialists are trained by the All-Union State Institute of Cinematography. In addition, some studios have special schools for cinema actors.

The engineering personnel is trained by the Leningrad and Kiev Cinema Institutes, while technicians get their schooling in cinema technical schools.

Scientific-research work in the field of cinematography and photography is concentrated in the All-Union Scientific-Research Cinema and Photo Institute.

The interest of the Soviet people and its government in the development of the cinema art in the U.S.S.R. was expressed in the famous words of Lenin: "Of all the arts, the cinema is the most important to us."

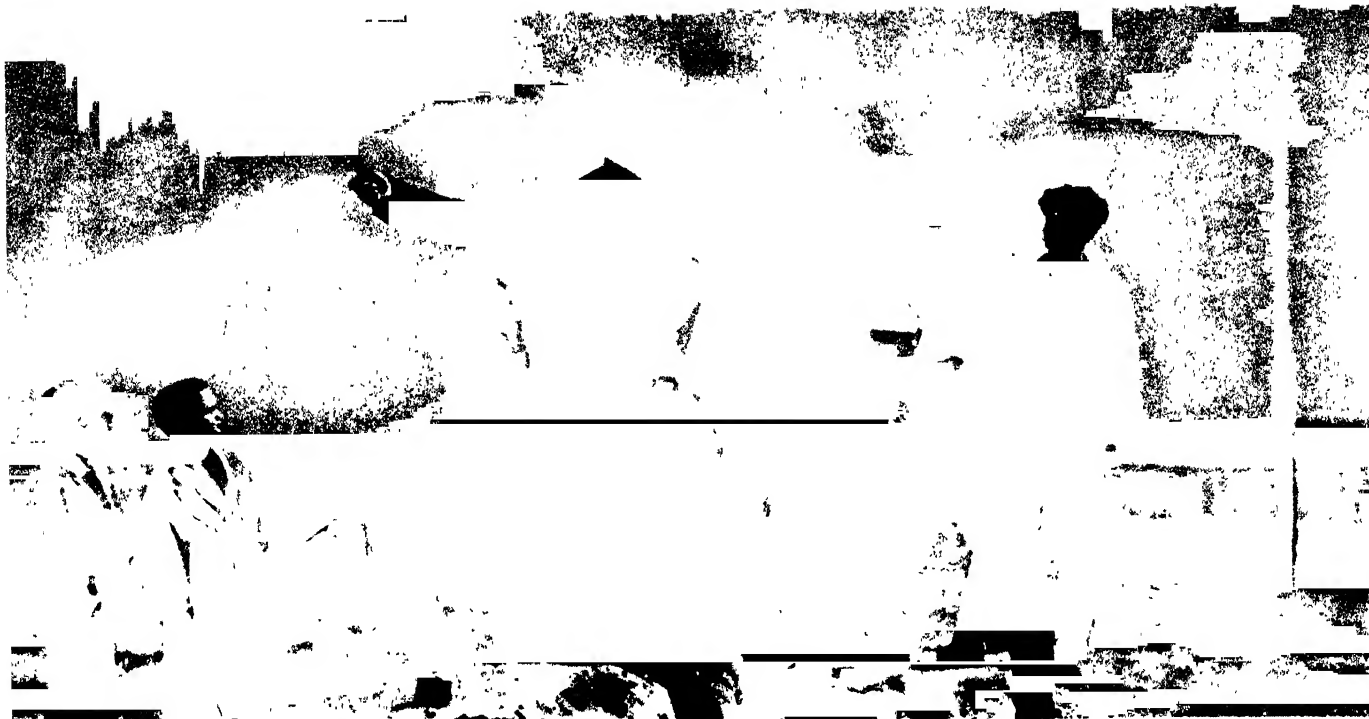


Still from the film *Lenin in October* with Shchukin in the role of Lenin

B. SHCHUKIN

People's Artist of the U.S.S.R.,
 Movie Actor, Stalin Prize Winner.
 Played role of Lenin in films:
The Man with the Gun,
Lenin in 1918

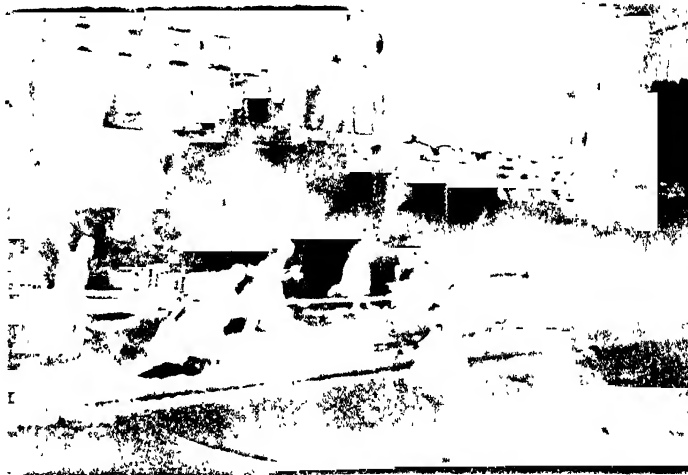




Still from the film *The Vow*, Production of Tbilisi Film Studio. Director Mikhail Chiaureli



Still from the film *The Turning Point*, Production of the Leningrad Film Studio. Director Frederick Ermler

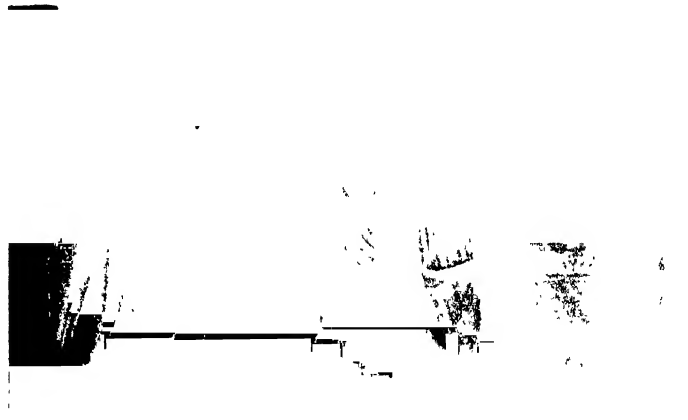


Still from the documentary film *Berlin*, Production of the Moscow Newsreel Studio. Director Yuli Raizman

Still from the film *Glinka*, 1946 Production. Boris Chirkov in the leading role



Still from the film *Arshin-Mal-Alan*, Production of the Baku Film Studio. Director Rza-Takhmasib





Gelovani in the role of Stalin in the film *The Vow*.

M. GELOVANI

Movie Actor
and Director,
Stalin Prize Winner.

Played role of Stalin
in films: *The Great
Glow, The Man With
the Gun, The Vyborg
Side, Lenin in 1918,
The Defence of Tsa-
ritsyn, Valeri Chkalov,
The Turning Point,
The Vow*. Director of
the films: *The Evil
Spirit, Youth Wins,
A True Caucasian*



Babochkin in the role of Chapayev in the film *Chapayev*

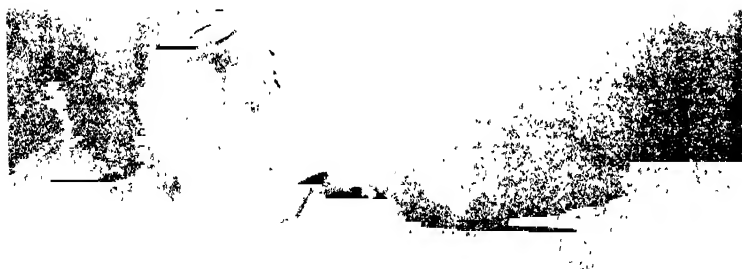
B. BABOCHKIN

People's Artist of
the R.S.F.S.R.,
Movie Actor
and Director,
Stalin Prize Winner.

Filmed in: *The Upris-
ing, Chapayev, Play-
mates, The Defence
of Tsaritsyn, The
Actress, Invincible,
The Front*. Director
of *Native Fields*



Ladykina in the film *At 6 p. m. After the War*



M. LADYNINA (with her son, Andrei)

Merited Actress of
the R.S.F.S.R.,
Movie Actress,
Stalin Prize Winner.

Filmed in: *The Rich
Bride, The Tractor
Drivers, The Beloved
Girl, The Shepherd
and Shepherdess, An-
tosha Rybkin, Secre-
tary of the Party Dis-
trict Committee, At
6 p. m. After the War*



SERGEI EISENSTEIN

*Film director, scenario writer.
Merited Worker of Art of the R.S.F.S.R. and Doctor of Art.
Stalin Prize Winner*

SERGEI EISENSTEIN was born in 1898. Before working in motion pictures he was a producer and artist in one of the Moscow theatres.

Eisenstein's first picture was called *Stachka (Strike)*. In 1925 he produced the historical-revolutionary film *Cruiser Potemkin*, which had far-reaching influence on the development of Soviet cinematography, and particularly on the work of Vsevolod Pudovkin, Sergei and Georgi Vassiliev, and other outstanding Soviet motion-picture producers.

Sergei Eisenstein's first sound film that attracted widespread attention and comment was *Alexander Nevsky*. This film is one of his most successful productions and it earned him a Stalin Prize. The film depicts the heroic events of the ancient past with monumental and epic simplicity.

During the years of the Great Patriotic War Sergei Eisenstein finished the first serial of the historical film *Ivan Grozny*, for which he again was awarded a Stalin Prize.

MIKHAIL CHIAURELI

*Film director, scenario writer, and actor.
Stalin Prize Winner*

BORN IN 1894, Mikhail Chiaureli studied in trade school and after finishing worked for a while as a locksmith. At that time he was strongly captivated by the stage and after a spell with an amateur drama circle, he became at the age of twenty a professional actor and artist-decorator in a Tbilisi theatre. After the Great October Revolution he graduated from the Tbilisi Academy of Arts.

He first tried his hand as a motion-picture actor in 1921. He played the star role in *Arsen Dzhordjiashvili*—the first Soviet film produced in Georgia. At the same time he continued to work in the theatre as an artist and stage manager.

His first try-out as a co-director in motion pictures was in the filming of *First Cornet Streshnev*. Later, working independently, Mikhail Chiaureli produced *Saba*, *Khabarda*, *Last Masquerade*, *Arsen* and finally, one of his best films—*The Great Glow*, a realistic narrative of pre-October days. In this picture Chiaureli revealed with utmost simplicity and expressiveness the historical events linked with the

October uprising and the characters of its leaders—Lenin and Stalin.

Mikhail Chiaureli's next film was the double-serial historical picture *Georgi Saakadze*.

In 1946 Chiaureli directed a new remarkable film called *Klyatva (The Vow)*. This film, based on the subject of Stalin's vow over the grave of Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, and its fulfilment, is so profound in concept and so full of artistic forcefulness and ideological content that it could easily be numbered among the most outstanding productions of world art.

At the international motion-picture festival held in 1946 *Klyatva* scored as one of the best films and Mikhail Chiaureli was awarded a prize.

For his *Arsen*, *The Great Glow*, *Georgi Saakadze* and *The Vow* Mikhail Chiaureli was awarded Stalin Prizes.

Chiaureli is a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

ILYA KOPALIN

*Director of documental films.
Stalin Prize Winner*

THE SON of a peasant, Ilya Kopalin was born in Moscow gubernia in 1900. As a youth he worked in a factory. Following the Great October Revolution he worked in land offices and later finished a pilot training school.

A chance acquaintance with cinema director Dziga Vertov led Kopalin to become absorbed in the intricacies of the cinema art, and at the age of twenty-four he switched over to movie-making, at first with Vertov and later independently. More than ten of his early films deal with country life and agriculture. Later he produced a series of documental films, among them: *Engineers of the Human Soul* (relating

to the First Congress of Soviet Writers), *Fifteen Years of Soviet Cinematography*, *Abyssinia and China's Rebuff*.

During the years of the Great Patriotic War Kopalin directed the shooting and editing of war scenes and produced the film *Stalin's Speech of November 6, 1942*. He also took pictures at the Crimea and Berlin conferences of the leaders of the three Great Powers.

Ilya Kopalin received a Stalin Prize in 1941 for his picture *On the Danube*, then again in the following year for his *Rout of the German Troops at Moscow*, and finally in 1945, for the third time, for filming *Liberated Czechoslovakia*.

VSEVOLOD PUDOVKIN

*Film director, scenario writer.
Merited Worker of Art of the R.S.F.S.R.
Stalin Prize Winner*

VSEVOLOD PUDOVKIN was born in 1893.

In 1920 he enrolled in the First State Cinema School, and acted for the films.

From 1921 to 1925 Pudovkin played in several films, but from 1925 on he began to specialize in film production.

His first production was *Chess Fever*, a short comedy. He followed this by *Mechanics of the Brain*, a popular-science film dealing with reflexes and based on researches conducted by the world-famous Russian physiologist, Academician Ivan Pavlov. Shortly after this he started work on the film *Mother* based on the novel of the same title by Maxim Gorky. The realism, stern pathos and lyricism of this film make it one of the world's best.

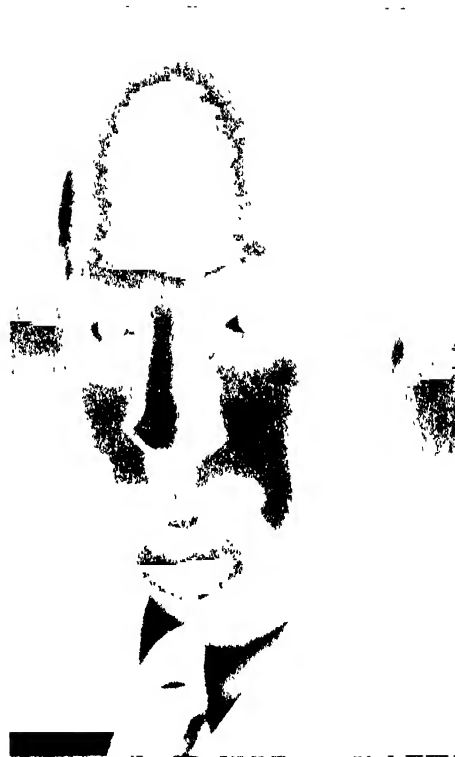
After making two more silent films, *The End of St. Petersburg* and *The Descendant of Genghis Khan*, Pudovkin turned to sound films. His experimental film *An Ordinary Occurrence*, and the films *Deserter* and *Victory* were followed by two historical films which he produced on a grand scale: *Minin and Pozharsky* and *Suvorov*. These productions are characterized by a true portrayal of historical facts, excellent acting and a perfect mastery of technique.

During the Great Patriotic War Pudovkin produced two films, *In the Name of Motherland* and *Admiral Nakhimov*.

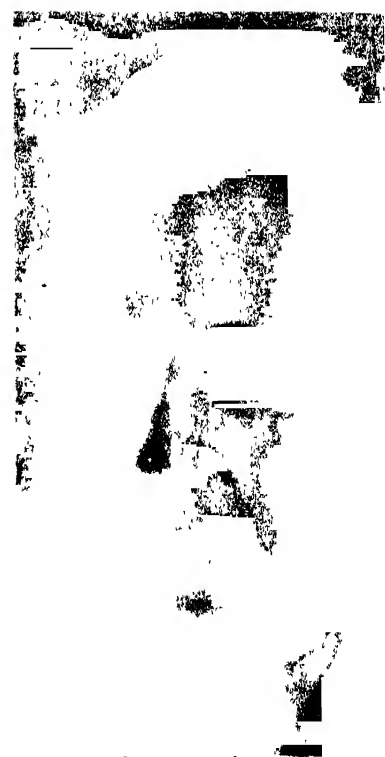
Vsevolod Pudovkin has been awarded a Stalin Prize.



SERGEI EISENSTEIN



M. CHIAURELI



I. KOPALIN



V. PUDOVKIN



M. ROMM

MIKHAIL ROMM

*Film director, scenario writer.
Merited Worker of Art of the R.S.F.S.R.
Stalin Prize Winner*

MIKHAIL ROMM was born in 1901. Before he began working as a producer, Romm studied at the Faculty of Sculpture of the Higher Institute of Arts; did journalistic work and wrote scenarios.

His first independent film production was Maupassant's *Boule de Suif*, made in 1933-34. In 1936-37 he produced the film *The Thirteen* to a scenario which he wrote jointly with the playwright Prut. After this, in 1937-38, Mikhail Romm worked on the film *Lenin in October* which was followed by *Lenin in 1918*, filmed in 1938-39.

These were the first films depicting scenes from the life and revolutionary activity of Vladimir Ilyich Lenin that were produced in So-

viet studios: the great figure of Lenin was created for the Soviet screen by Boris Shchukin, a brilliant actor of the Vakhtangov Theatre. The severe simplicity which marked all Romm's earlier films was combined with a lofty ideological content and technical mastery in the Lenin films. These two films earned Mikhail Romm a Stalin Prize.

Romm's keen powers of observation, subtle mind and profound psychological insight are seen at their best in his later films: *The Dream* (1939-40) and *No. 217* (1945). He received a second Stalin Prize for *No. 217*, and the film won a prize at the International Film Festival in 1946.

SERGEI AND GEORGI VASSILIEV

*Film directors and scenario writers.
Winners of two Stalin Prizes*

KOLAYEVICH VASSILIEV was born in 1899; Sergei Vassiliev—in 1900. They became acquainted and took their first joint fling at movie-making in 1925 in the "Sovkino" studio under the pseudonym of "Vassiliev Brothers." Their partnership began when they edited together the film called *A Feat Amidst Ice*, the script of which was based on the adventures of a Soviet Arctic expedition.

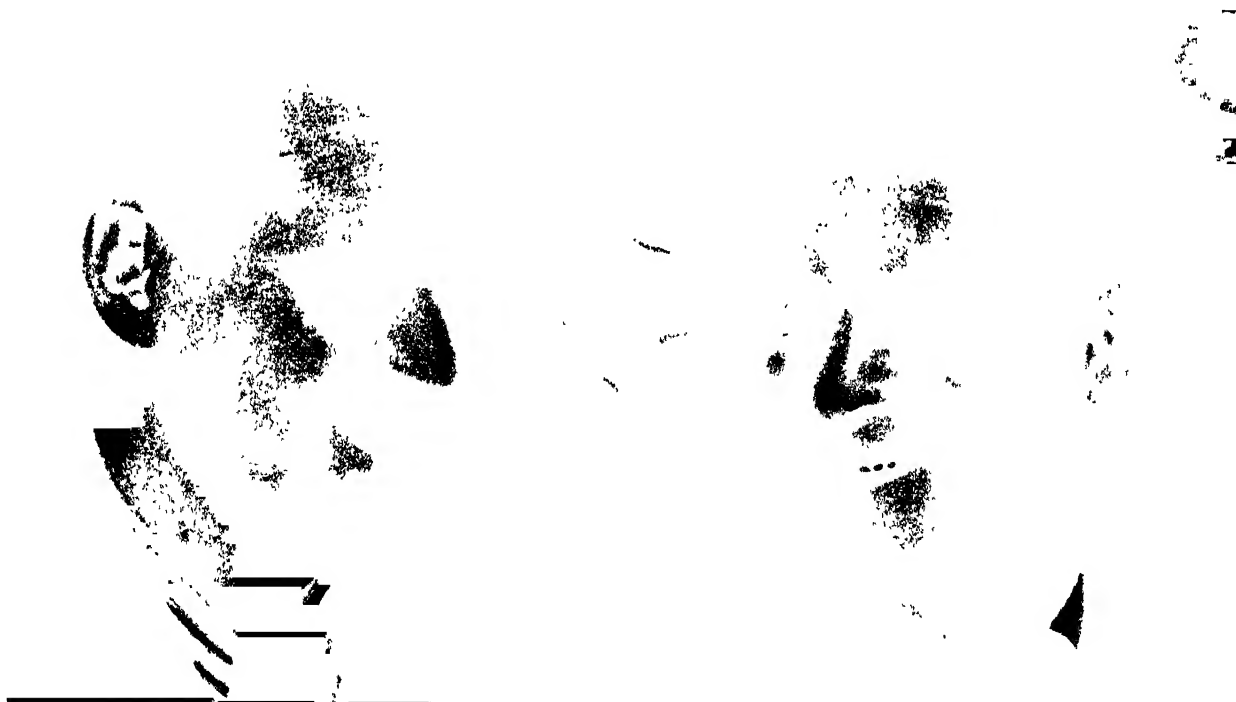
Following the filming of their first full-length features (*The Sleeping Beauty* and *Private Affair*), the Vassiliev Brothers made *Chapayev*—a film that is well known throughout the world. The high ideological level attained in *Chapayev*, as well as the simple and truthful portrayal of characters and the artful play of the actors, made this outstanding film not only the pride

of the Vassiliev Brothers, but of the Soviet cinema industry as well.

Chapayev is one of the favourite pictures of the Soviet people. For its production the Vassiliev Brothers were awarded a Stalin Prize.

During the years of the Great Patriotic War, Soviet screens demonstrated *The Defence of Tsaritsyn*, *Voroshilov's Campaign* and *Front*, all three produced by the Vassiliev Brothers. *The Defence of Tsaritsyn* brought them a second Stalin Prize.

The twenty-year partnership of these two distinguished Soviet film directors ended in 1946 with the death of Georgi Vassiliev. Sergei Vassiliev is now filming a new picture—*Rout of the German Troops at Leningrad*.



S. and G. VASSILIEV

FEBRUARY



- FEBRUARY 1, 1926** *The Kirghiz Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic formed. In 1936 it became a Union Republic of the U.S.S.R.*
- FEBRUARY 2, 1943** *The final liquidation of the German fascist army surrounded near Stalingrad.*
- FEBRUARY 2, 1907** *The brilliant Russian chemist Dmitri Mendeleev died.*
- FEBRUARY 9, 1946** *J. V. Stalin addressed an election meeting in the Stalin district in Moscow.*
- FEBRUARY 10, 1946** *Elections to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. took place.*
- FEBRUARY 10, 1947** *110th anniversary of the death of Alexander Pushkin.*
- FEBRUARY 13, 1945** *Units of the Soviet Army took full possession of Budapest, the capital of Hungary.*
- FEBRUARY 13, 1945** *The Leaders of Three Allied Powers—U.S.S.R., U.S.A., and Great Britain—published a statement on the results of the Crimea Conference.*
- FEBRUARY 17, 1935** *The Model Rules of the Agricultural Artel, known as the "Stalin Law of Collective-Farm Life," adopted by the Second All-Union Congress of Collective-Farm Shock Workers.*
- FEBRUARY 18, 1947** *10th anniversary of the death of the prominent Soviet statesman, Grigori Orjonikidze.*
- FEBRUARY 21, 1920** *The State Commission for the Electrification of Russia was formed on the initiative of V. I. Lenin.*
- FEBRUARY 23, 1918** *Units of the Soviet Army utterly defeated the troops of the German invaders near Narva and Pskov. This day is celebrated as the birthday of the Soviet Army.*
- FEBRUARY 23, 1945** *The outstanding Russian author Alexei Tolstoy died.*
- FEBRUARY 25, 1921** *Soviet power was established in Georgia.*
- FEBRUARY 27, 1936** *The great Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov died.*
- FEBRUARY 27, 1939** *Nadezhda Krupskaya, old member of the Bolshevik Party, wife, friend and closest collaborator of V. I. Lenin, died.*



*The Arms
of the Kirghiz Soviet Socialist
Republic*

KIRGHIZ SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE KIRGHIZ SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC, which covers an area of 197,000 square kilometres and has a population of 1,500,000, lies in the eastern part of Soviet Central Asia. In the east and south the republic is bordered by Sinkiang, a western province of China. Besides the Kirghiz people, who comprise the majority of the population, the republic is inhabited by Russians, Ukrainians and Uzbeks.

Before the revolution the Kirghiz people enjoyed no rights whatsoever. They were oppressed both by the Russian capitalists and landowners, and by the local rich. They were nomads and engaged almost exclusively in primitive stockbreeding. Their culture was suppressed by tsardom. They were gradually dying out.

The Kirghiz people look back at a long history, but for centuries they had been deprived of their independence; they gained independent statehood only after the establishment of the Soviet system. In 1924 Kirghizia was made an Autonomous Region, and, in 1926, an Autonomous Republic of the R.S.F.S.R. On December 5, 1936, she became a Union Republic of the U.S.S.R.

The victory of Soviet power in Russia put an end to the oppression of the Kirghiz people. Thousands of peasants received land, livestock, farm implements and seed. Soviet power has transformed this backward tsarist colony into a flourishing industrial and agrarian republic with a fast developing culture, a culture national in form and socialist in content.

Whereas Kirghizia had no industry before the revolution, during the Soviet years hundreds of factories, mills, mines and power stations have been built there. Kirghizia now supplies coal to all the Central Asiatic republics, has an oil industry and large mines for the extraction of mercury, antimony and other metals. Within 20 years Kirghizia's power capacities increased 100 times over, and now there are more than 150 power stations supplying electricity for industrial and domestic needs. As a result of the rapid industrialization, in 1945 industry accounted for 70 per cent of the republic's total production.

The only communication routes that existed in Kirghizia were winding country paths, but now the republic has 10,000 kilometres of highways. The capital, Frunze, has rail connections with all the sister republics. The radio, telegraph and telephone link the most remote corners of the Kirghiz S.S.R. with the major cultural centres of the Soviet Union.

In Soviet times the backward nomad economy has been converted into modern large-scale socialist agriculture. The cultivated area has been doubled. The state and collective farms fatten their livestock in mountain pastures. Important industrial crops are raised on the irrigated fields: in the north these include *kındyr*, *kervaf*, a jute substitute, sugar beet, poppy and tobacco; in the south, cotton, fruit and grapes. The farms employ tractors, combines and other machines. Leading cotton growers raised more than five tons of cotton per hectare during the Great Patriotic War. Arid lands have been reclaimed by irrigation and made to yield bumper harvests.

More than 2,000,000 head of livestock graze in the mountain pastures. The republic now has more than 1,000,000 head of long-fleeced sheep. During the Soviet years the head of horses has increased by 18 times, and of cattle by 10 times.

The Soviet system has led the Kirghiz people onto the high-road of cultural progress. Universal compulsory elementary education has been introduced. There are 1,531 schools, in which 220,000 children are studying in their native language. Before the Revolution Kirghizia did not have a single institution of higher learning; now there are six universities and 33 technical schools which are training specialists for the republic in various fields.

The formerly illiterate Kirghiz people, who did not boast a single well-educated person, have built up their own intelligentsia. There are at present 8,000 Kirghiz schoolteachers, doctors, engineers, agronomists and zootechnicians. There are Kirghiz scientists, actors, writers, painters and sculptors. The Kirghiz Branch of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. comprises 23 research institutes and other scientific institutions. Striking evidence of the cultural advance of the Kirghiz people is the fact that between 1937 and 1946 the publishing houses of the republic issued various books in a total printing of 17,700,000 copies.

During the Great Patriotic War the Kirghiz people honourably fulfilled their duty in defence of the country and made their contribution to the defeat of the German fascist invaders. Kirghizians fought heroically in the ranks of the Soviet Army: 54 won the high title of Hero of the Soviet Union, and a total of 40,000 were decorated with various battle honours. During the war the Kirghiz people supplied the Soviet Army with excellent horses. They raised large quantities of agricultural produce for the forces and the civilian population. Extensive construction was carried on in the republic in wartime, when more than 30 big industrial enterprises were built.

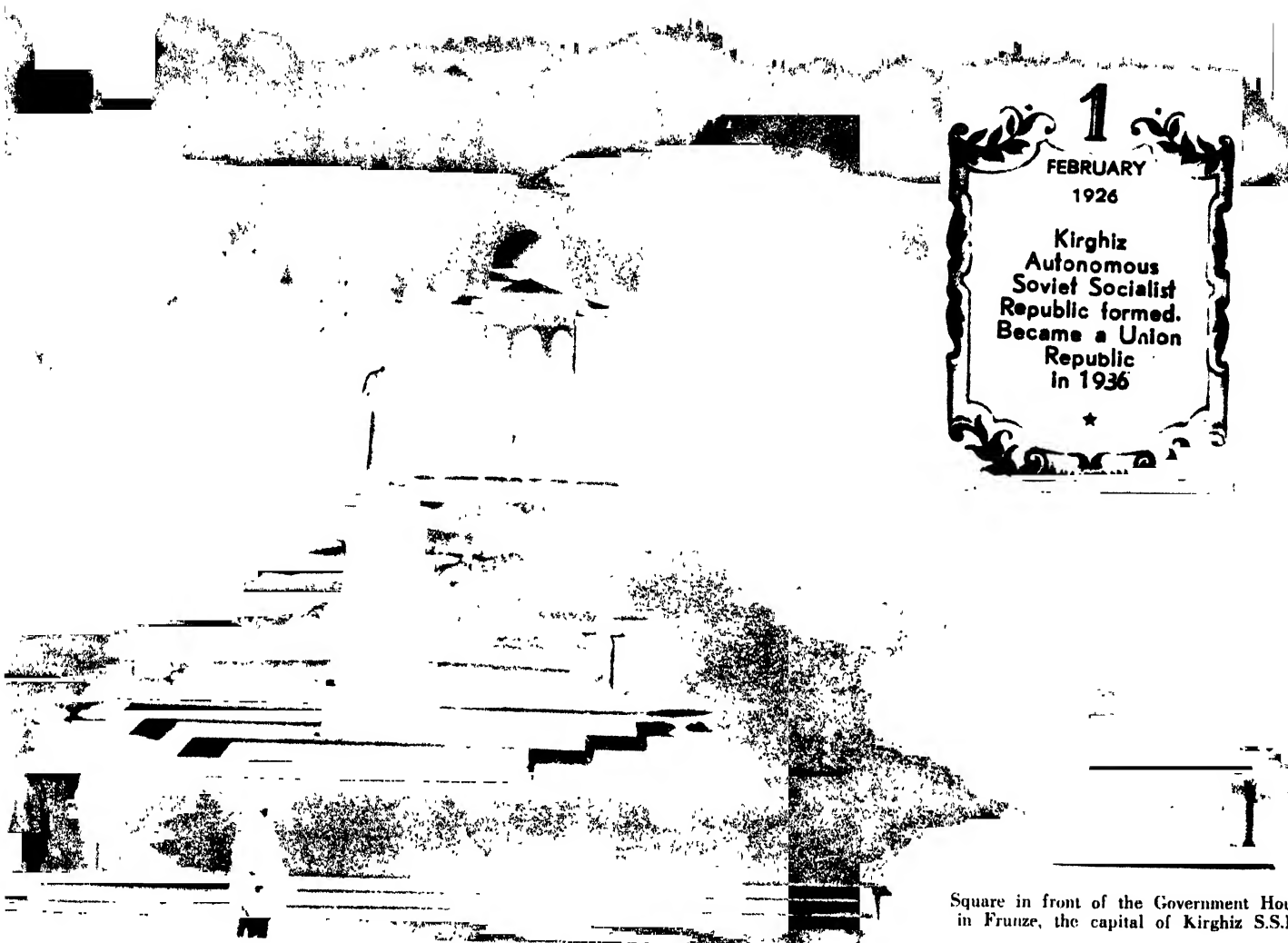
Kirghizia is making further great economic and cultural progress under the current Stalin Five-Year Plan. A total of 1,200,000,000 rubles will be invested in the republic's national economy. Industrial output in 1950 will be double that of 1940.

A total of 1,600,000 tons of coal will be mined in 1950, or an increase of one and a half times over the amount extracted in 1945; the annual oil output will reach about 80,000 tons; power capacity will be increased to three and a half times over the 1940 figure and will reach 180,000,000 kilowatt-hours. New power stations with a capacity of 38,000 kilowatts will be constructed. Further impetus will be given to the mining of rare and non-ferrous metals and to the food and textile industries.

The Five-Year Plan provides for the further development of agriculture as well. The irrigation system is to be expanded to bring another 22,000 hectares of land under cultivation. There will be approximately 490,000 horses by 1950, an increase of more than one and a half times compared with 1945; the head of cattle will number 560,000, a 27 per cent increase, and there will be 4,300,000 head of sheep, an increase of almost 90 per cent.

A total of 215,000 square metres of living space will be built in the towns and workers' settlements of Kirghizia between 1946 and 1950. A trolleybus service will be started in the capital, Frunze. The number of schools, hospitals and sanatoriums will be increased. School attendance will reach 278,000 by the end of the Five-Year Plan period.

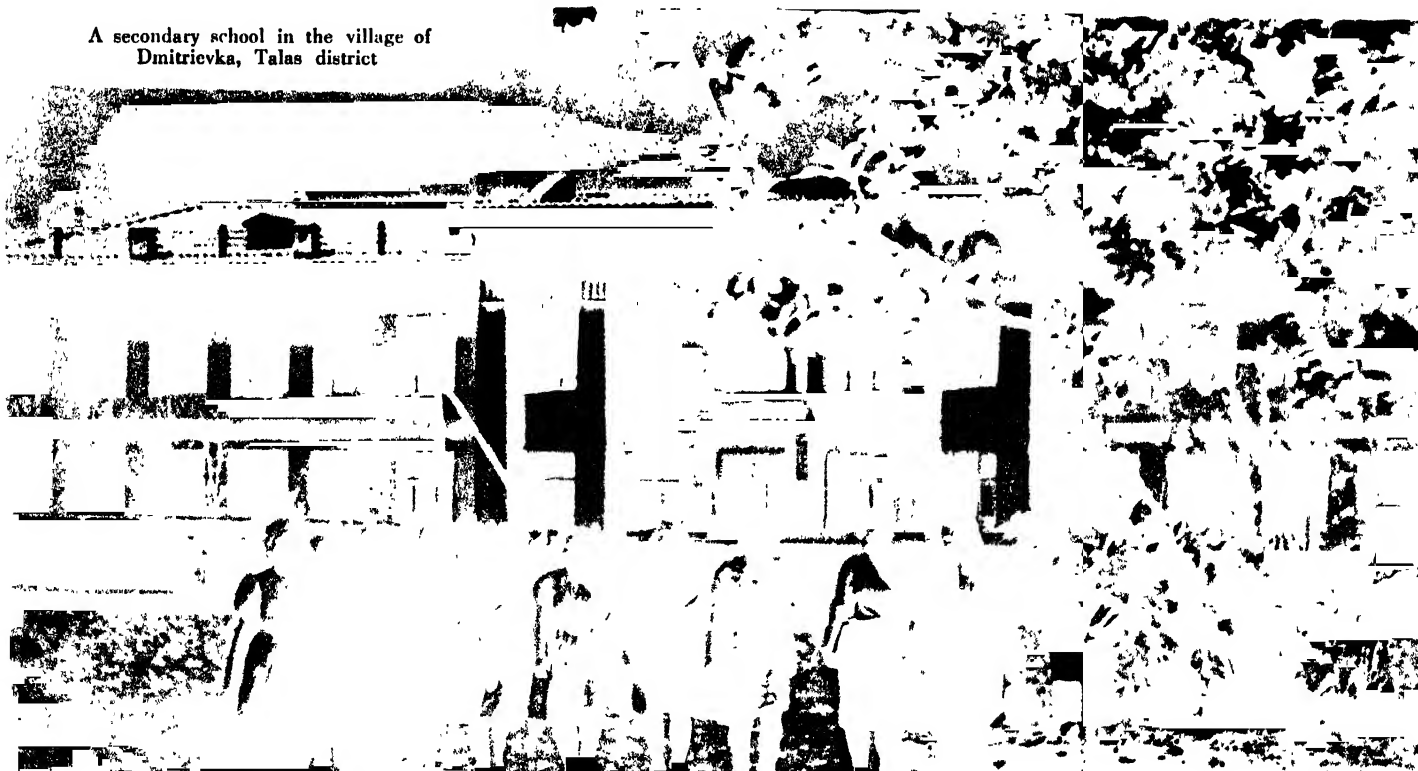
During the fourth Stalin Five-Year Plan period the Kirghiz S.S.R., a powerful outpost of the Soviet Union in the East, will make further great economic and cultural progress.



1
FEBRUARY
1926
 Kirghiz
 Autonomous
 Soviet Socialist
 Republic formed.
 Became a Union
 Republic
 in 1936

Square in front of the Government Hou
 in Frunze, the capital of Kirghiz S.S.F

A secondary school in the village of
 Dmitrievka, Talas district



KIRGHIZ SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE KIRGHIZ SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC, which covers an area of 197,000 square kilometres and has a population of 1,500,000, lies in the eastern part of Soviet Central Asia. In the east and south the republic is bordered by Sinkiang, a western province of China. Besides the Kirghiz people, who comprise the majority of the population, the republic is inhabited by Russians, Ukrainians and Uzbeks.

Before the revolution the Kirghiz people enjoyed no rights whatsoever. They were oppressed both by the Russian capitalists and landowners, and by the local rich. They were nomads and engaged almost exclusively in primitive stockbreeding. Their culture was suppressed by tsardom. They were gradually dying out.

The Kirghiz people look back at a long history, but for centuries they had been deprived of their independence; they gained independent statehood only after the establishment of the Soviet system. In 1924 Kirghizia was made an Autonomous Region, and, in 1926, an Autonomous Republic of the R.S.F.S.R. On December 5, 1936, she became a Union Republic of the U.S.S.R.

The victory of Soviet power in Russia put an end to the oppression of the Kirghiz people. Thousands of peasants received land, livestock, farm implements and seed. Soviet power has transformed this backward tsarist colony into a flourishing industrial and agrarian republic with a fast developing culture, a culture national in form and socialist in content.

Whereas Kirghizia had no industry before the revolution, during the Soviet years hundreds of factories, mills, mines and power stations have been built there. Kirghizia now supplies coal to all the Central Asiatic republics, has an oil industry and large mines for the extraction of mercury, antimony and other metals. Within 20 years Kirghizia's power capacities increased 100 times over, and now there are more than 150 power stations supplying electricity for industrial and domestic needs. As a result of the rapid industrialization, in 1945 industry accounted for 70 per cent of the republic's total production.

The only communication routes that existed in Kirghizia were winding country paths, but now the republic has 10,000 kilometres of highways. The capital, Frunze, has rail connections with all the sister republics. The radio, telegraph and telephone link the most remote corners of the Kirghiz S.S.R. with the major cultural centres of the Soviet Union.

In Soviet times the backward nomad economy has been converted into modern large-scale socialist agriculture. The cultivated area has been doubled. The state and collective farms fatten their livestock in mountain pastures. Important industrial crops are raised on the irrigated fields: in the north these include *kendyr*, *kewl*, a jute substitute, sugar beet, poppy and tobacco; in the south, cotton, fruit and grapes. The farms employ tractors, combines and other machines. Leading cotton growers raised more than five tons of cotton per hectare during the Great Patriotic War. Arid lands have been reclaimed by irrigation and made to yield bumper harvests.

More than 2,000,000 head of livestock graze in the mountain pastures. The republic now has more than 1,000,000 head of long-fleeced sheep. During the Soviet years the head of horses has increased by 18 times, and of cattle by 10 times.

The Soviet system has led the Kirghiz people onto the high-road of cultural progress. Universal compulsory elementary education has been introduced. There are 1,531 schools, in which 220,000 children are studying in their native language. Before the Revolution Kirghizia did not have a single institution of higher learning; now there are six universities and 33 technical schools which are training specialists for the republic in various fields.

The formerly illiterate Kirghiz people, who did not boast a single well-educated person, have built up their own intelligentsia. There are at present 8,000 Kirghiz schoolteachers, doctors, engineers, agronomists and zootechnicians. There are Kirghiz scientists, actors, writers, painters and sculptors. The Kirghiz Branch of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. comprises 23 research institutes and other scientific institutions. Striking evidence of the cultural advance of the Kirghiz people is the fact that between 1937 and 1946 the publishing houses of the republic issued various books in a total printing of 17,700,000 copies.

During the Great Patriotic War the Kirghiz people honourably fulfilled their duty in defence of the country and made their contribution to the defeat of the German fascist invaders. Kirghizians fought heroically in the ranks of the Soviet Army: 54 won the high title of Hero of the Soviet Union, and a total of 40,000 were decorated with various battle honours. During the war the Kirghiz people supplied the Soviet Army with excellent horses. They raised large quantities of agricultural produce for the forces and the civilian population. Extensive construction was carried on in the republic in wartime, when more than 30 big industrial enterprises were built.

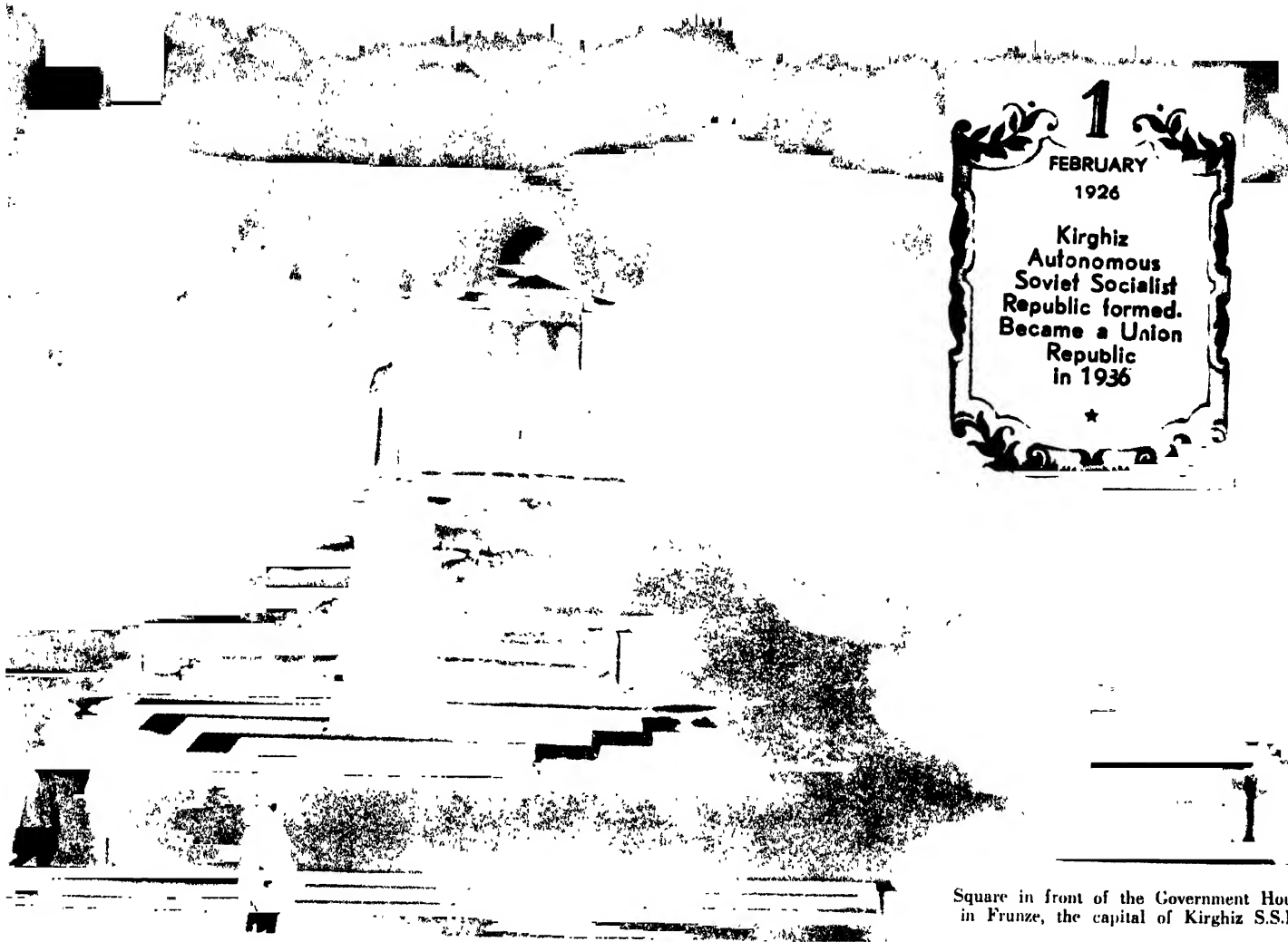
Kirghizia is making further great economic and cultural progress under the current Stalin Five-Year Plan. A total of 1,200,000,000 rubles will be invested in the republic's national economy. Industrial output in 1950 will be double that of 1940.

A total of 1,600,000 tons of coal will be mined in 1950, or an increase of one and a half times over the amount extracted in 1945; the annual oil output will reach about 80,000 tons; power capacity will be increased to three and a half times over the 1940 figure and will reach 180,000,000 kilowatt-hours. New power stations with a capacity of 38,000 kilowatts will be constructed. Further impetus will be given to the mining of rare and non-ferrous metals and to the food and textile industries.

The Five-Year Plan provides for the further development of agriculture as well. The irrigation system is to be expanded to bring another 22,000 hectares of land under cultivation. There will be approximately 490,000 horses by 1950, an increase of more than one and a half times compared with 1945; the head of cattle will number 560,000, a 27 per cent increase, and there will be 4,300,000 head of sheep, an increase of almost 90 per cent.

A total of 215,000 square metres of living space will be built in the towns and workers' settlements of Kirghizia between 1946 and 1950. A trolleybus service will be started in the capital, Frunze. The number of schools, hospitals and sanatoriums will be increased. School attendance will reach 278,000 by the end of the Five-Year Plan period.

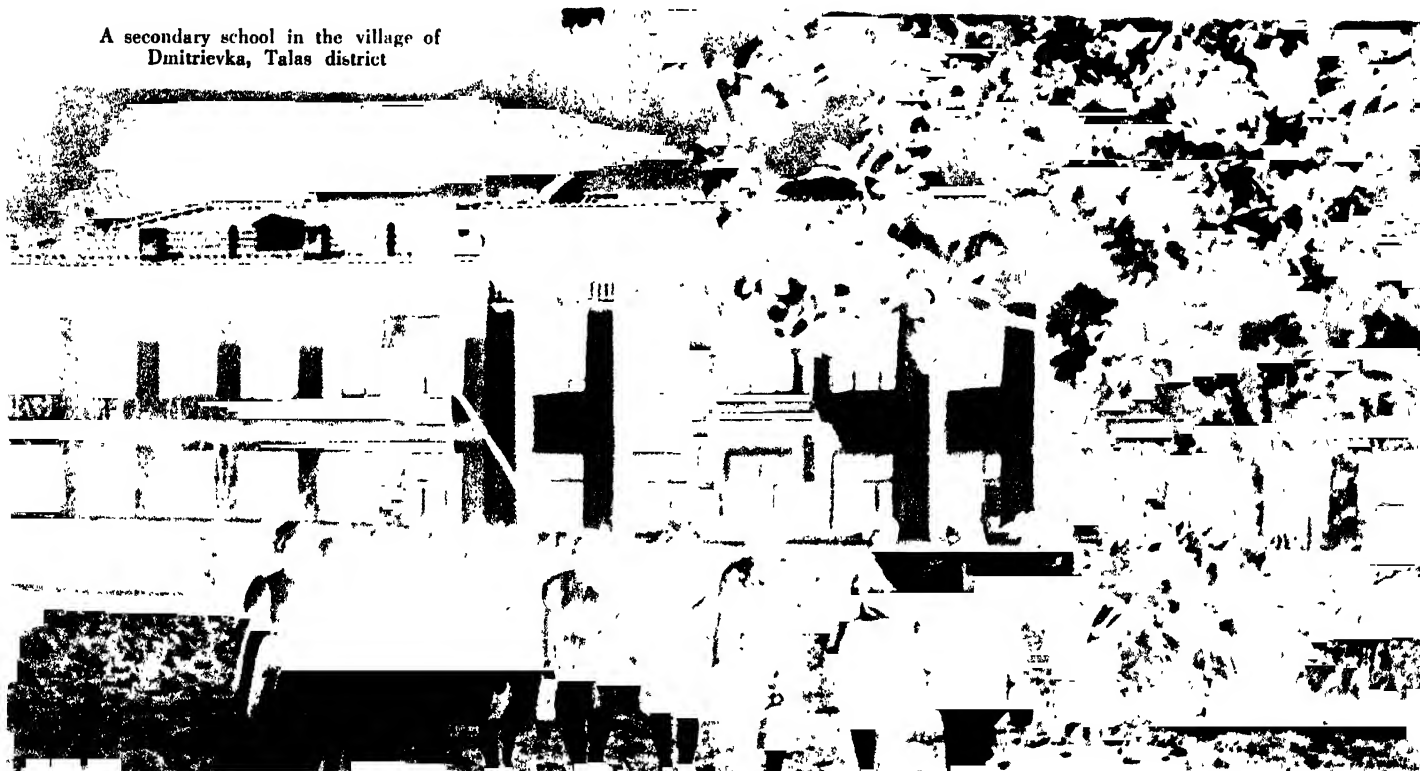
During the fourth Stalin Five-Year Plan period the Kirghiz S.S.R., a powerful outpost of the Soviet Union in the East, will make further great economic and cultural progress.



1
FEBRUARY
1926
 Kirghiz
 Autonomous
 Soviet Socialist
 Republic formed.
 Became a Union
 Republic
 in 1936

Square in front of the Government Hou
 in Frunze, the capital of Kirghiz S.S.F

A secondary school in the village of
 Dmitrievka, Talas district



Chumish Dam in Chui Valley

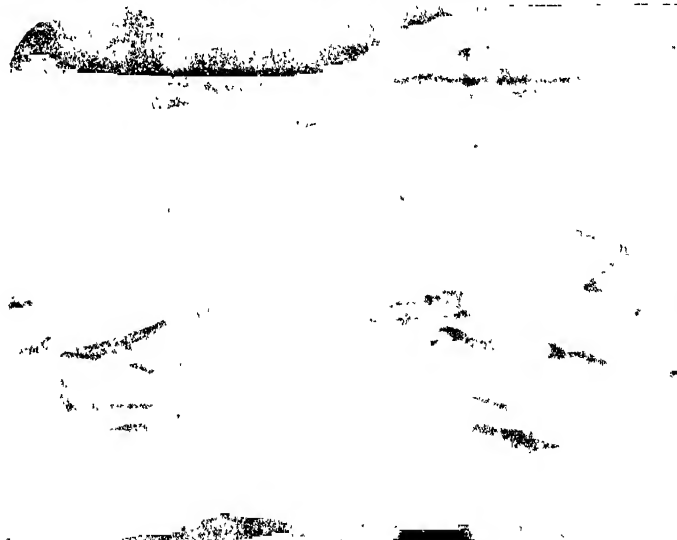


Gathering apples on a state farm. Cholpon-Ata village, Issyk-Kul region

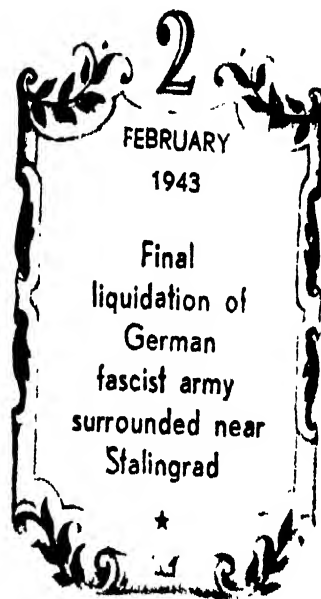
Collective farmers of the Molotov (Osh region) building the Mirza-Kurbash Canal. Kzyl-Asker collective farm, Frunze district



Below: Doves of Don race horses on their summer pasture. State stud farm, Issyk-Kul region



centre: K. Shapakova, farm brigade leader and deputy to the Supreme of the U.S.S.R. and B. Dzhusumbaev, farm chairman and deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Kirghiz S.S.R., inspecting the sugar beet



THE BATTLE OF STALINGRAD

FOUR YEARS have elapsed since that memorable day when the Nazi army group 330,000 strong surrounded at Stalingrad was finally liquidated. The whole world now admits the paramount importance of the victory achieved at Stalingrad, for it marked the crucial moment in the course of the Second World War, the point at which the initiative passed to the Soviet Army and the Allies. Today, after the defeat of Hitler Germany and imperialist Japan, the significance of the Battle of Stalingrad as a dynamo of ideological mobilization and patriotic inspiration stands out more prominently than ever before.

In the autumn of 1942 things took a particularly dangerous turn for the Soviet Union. The enemy was at the gates of Leningrad and but 120 kilometres from Moscow. In the south the Germans had reached the Volga in the vicinity of Stalingrad and had gained the foothills of the Caucasus. The Hitlerites had seized a vast territory, including such economically important districts as Krivoy Rog, the Donetz basin and the Maikop oil-fields.

The Hitlerite plan envisaged the seizure of the Baku and Grozny oil districts, and a deep penetration into the interior of the Soviet country to outflank Moscow from the east, capture the capital and finish the war in 1942. Taking advantage of the absence of a second front in Europe, the German high command concentrated a numerically superior force in the

southwestern sector and scored important tactical successes. What were the German calculations? As in 1941, they relied on the element of surprise to permit their tanks to breach the Soviet lines, dash far into their rear and capture Soviet cities in rapid succession without encountering serious resistance. The Nazis figured that Soviet industry was no longer in a condition to supply the front with adequate arms and ammunition, that after the loss of the southern districts, which supplied the country with coal, metal and grain, the Soviet Union was at the end of its tether.

The year 1942 was of greater adversity and severer strain for the people of the Soviet Union than any other during the war.

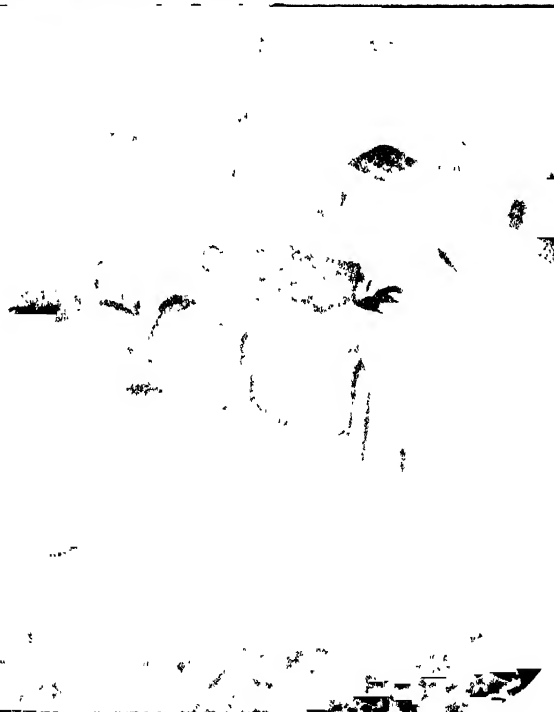
"But even in those grave days our Army and people did not lose heart, but staunchly bore all trials. They found the strength to check the enemy and strike him a counterblow. True to the behests of our great Lenin, they defended the gains of the October Revolution, stinting neither their strength nor their lives. It is well known that the efforts our Army and people exerted then were not in vain." (Stalin)

Already during the first year of the war a powerful war industry was established in the eastern districts of the U.S.S.R. With heroic toil the factory workers managed to produce military equipment and supplies in the quantities required, which the transport workers rapidly delivered to the front.

Chumish Dam in Chui Valley



Below: Collective farmers of the Molotov (Osh region) building the Mirza-Kurbash Canal. Kzyl-Asker collective farm, Frunze district

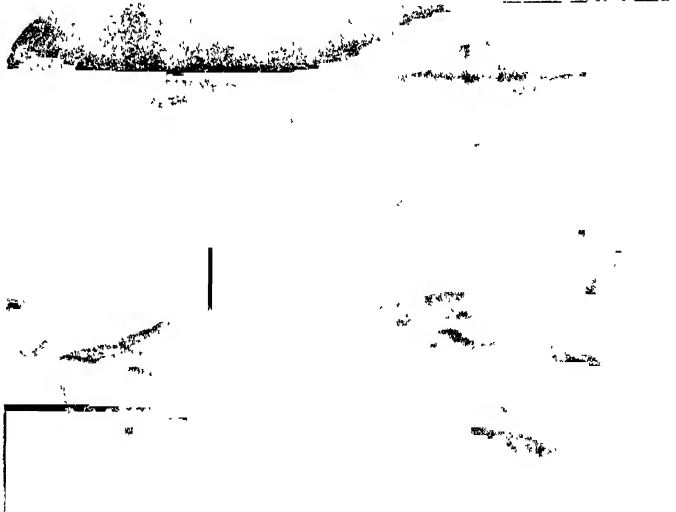


Below: K. Shapakova, farm brigade leader and deputy to the Supreme of the U.S.S.R. and B. Dzhusumbaev, farm chairman and deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Kirghiz S.S.R., inspecting the sugar beet

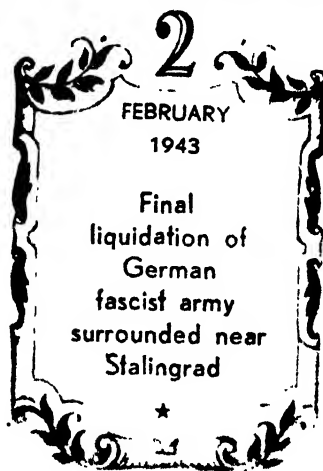
Gathering apples on a state farm. Cholpon-Ata village, Issyk-Kul region



Below: Drovers of Don race horses on their summer pasture. State stud farm, Issyk-Kul region



A MEETING IN STALINGRAD ON THE SQUARE OF FALLEN HEROES AFTER THE DEFEAT OF THE GERMAN ARMY AND THE LIBERATION OF THE
FEBRUARY 4, 1943



THE BATTLE OF STALINGRAD

FOUR YEARS have elapsed since that memorable day when the Nazi army group 330,000 strong surrounded at Stalingrad was finally liquidated. The whole world now admits the paramount importance of the victory achieved at Stalingrad, for it marked the crucial moment in the course of the Second World War, the point at which the initiative passed to the Soviet Army and the Allies. Today, after the defeat of Hitler Germany and imperialist Japan, the significance of the Battle of Stalingrad as a dynamo of ideological mobilization and patriotic inspiration stands out more prominently than ever before.

In the autumn of 1942 things took a particularly dangerous turn for the Soviet Union. The enemy was at the gates of Leningrad and but 120 kilometres from Moscow. In the south the Germans had reached the Volga in the vicinity of Stalingrad and had gained the foothills of the Caucasus. The Hitlerites had seized a vast territory, including such economically important districts as Krivoy Rog, the Donetz basin and the Maikop oil-fields.

The Hitlerite plan envisaged the seizure of the Baku and Grozny oil districts, and a deep penetration into the interior of the Soviet country to outflank Moscow from the east, capture the capital and finish the war in 1942. Taking advantage of the absence of a second front in Europe, the German high command concentrated a numerically superior force in the

southwestern sector and scored important tactical successes. What were the German calculations? As in 1941, they relied on the element of surprise to permit their tanks to breach the Soviet lines, dash far into their rear and capture Soviet cities in rapid succession without encountering serious resistance. The Nazis figured that Soviet industry was no longer in a condition to supply the front with adequate arms and ammunition, that after the loss of the southern districts, which supplied the country with coal, metal and grain, the Soviet Union was at the end of its tether.

The year 1942 was of greater adversity and severer strain for the people of the Soviet Union than any other during the war.

"But even in those grave days our Army and people did not lose heart, but staunchly bore all trials. They found the strength to check the enemy and strike him a counterblow. True to the behests of our great Lenin, they defended the gains of the October Revolution, stinting neither their strength nor their lives. It is well known that the efforts our Army and people exerted then were not in vain." (Stalin)

Already during the first year of the war a powerful war industry was established in the eastern districts of the U.S.S.R. With heroic toil the factory workers managed to produce military equipment and supplies in the quantities required, which the transport workers rapidly delivered to the front.

The collective and state farms ensured the uninterrupted supply of food for the army and of raw material for industry.

The Bolshevik Party roused the millions of the toiling people to the emergency, inspired them in their valiant struggle to save their socialist motherland and organized their energies for victory over the enemy. The titanic struggle against the Nazi invader, which involved every section of the population, served as the granite foundation upon which the Stalinist strategy was built, the scientific strategy that proved its superiority over the deficient strategy of Hitler.

Stalin perspicaciously fathomed the plans of the enemy. During the first stage of the struggle the Soviet Army blocked the northward progress of the Germans into the rear of Moscow. From Voronezh to Stalingrad along the middle reaches of the Don a new line of defence was being built. Continuing to spread in the south, the Hitlerite troops in the middle of July 1942 directed their main blow against Stalingrad. The Soviet Supreme Command ordered Stalingrad to be held at any cost.

Thus began the Battle of Stalingrad, which became immortal in the annals of war. Relying on the support of the people, the Soviet Army prepared for a struggle of life and death in defence of the city that bears the name of Stalin. When the German tanks and planes encountered the ferocious fire of the Stalingrad defenders, the battle broke up into numerous separate engagements in which the Soviet soldiers' heroism and military proficiency proved more than a match for those of the Hitler brand.

The Nazis became involved in heavy and protracted fighting among the ruins of the city. Hitler's headquarters refused to admit failure of their plans. Yet the Nazi fiasco was already a palpable fact.

On November 6, 1942, that is, even before the Soviet Army's counteroffensive began, Stalin said in his report that

"...the tactical successes of the German summer offensive were not consummated owing to the obvious unfeasibility of their strategical plans."

Events showed that precisely this was the crux of the situation that had arisen. After achieving important tactical successes the Germans were brought to a halt with their plans unexecuted. The fighting at Stalingrad pinned down their numerous forces, whereby the Soviet troops gained time for the preparation of their offensive, which commenced on November 19.

Stalin's brilliant strategic plan was based on a correct appraisal of the situation and the relation of contending forces. It expressed the might of the great Soviet power that had not only held its own in a contest of unprecedented difficulty but evinced its ability to dispatch to the front whole armies of reserves and to furnish them with excellent equipment. It concretized the wisdom and foresight of the leader of the Soviet people and its armed forces, it attested the bold determination of the Supreme Commander-in-Chief who had concentrated his strategic reserves at the decisive sectors with the aim of surrounding and defeating this principal grouping of the German troops.

The Battle of Stalingrad, which lasted half a year, was exceedingly involved and will be an object of study to more than one generation of historians. Stalin's strategic plan was, among others, a classical illustration of how the element of surprise should be employed in practice. It is futile now for the foreign press to attempt to show retrospectively that the German generals were aware of their precarious situation

and advised Hitler to order a timely retreat. The course of events has proved that they saw and understood nothing until the end came with a crash.

In the first place the Soviet Command made effective use of the element of tactical surprise in its offensive. All preparations proceeded in strictest secrecy. The sudden and overwhelming blows of two Soviet groupings caught the weak spots in the German defence unaware, and before the Hitler command realized what was on, the attackers closed the encircling ring near Kalach.

Yet the Nazis did not attach particular importance to this fact. They counted on the strength of their force at Stalingrad and of their defensive fortifications. Moreover, powerful reserves were being dispatched in aid of the surrounded group of armies. The Nazi command failed to grasp the full import of the strategic designs of the Soviet Supreme Command, nor did it suspect the existence of powerful Soviet reserves ready to be thrown into the fray, and certainly not of any new Soviet tank corps.

The further course of the battle made manifest the effectiveness of strategic surprise. While the Soviet troops were tightening the ring which they had thrown around the Stalingrad area, a new sledge-hammer blow was delivered at the Germans in the central Don region. Other reserves were rushed to meet the Manstein group which was marching to the rescue of the surrounded Nazis; but it was intercepted by them and smashed. Soviet troops also assumed the offensive in North Caucasus.

The situation of the German group at Stalingrad became strategically hopeless. In January 1943, the Soviet Army executed a splendid operation which brought final defeat to the encircled foe.

As Stalin said, the Soviet people will forever remember

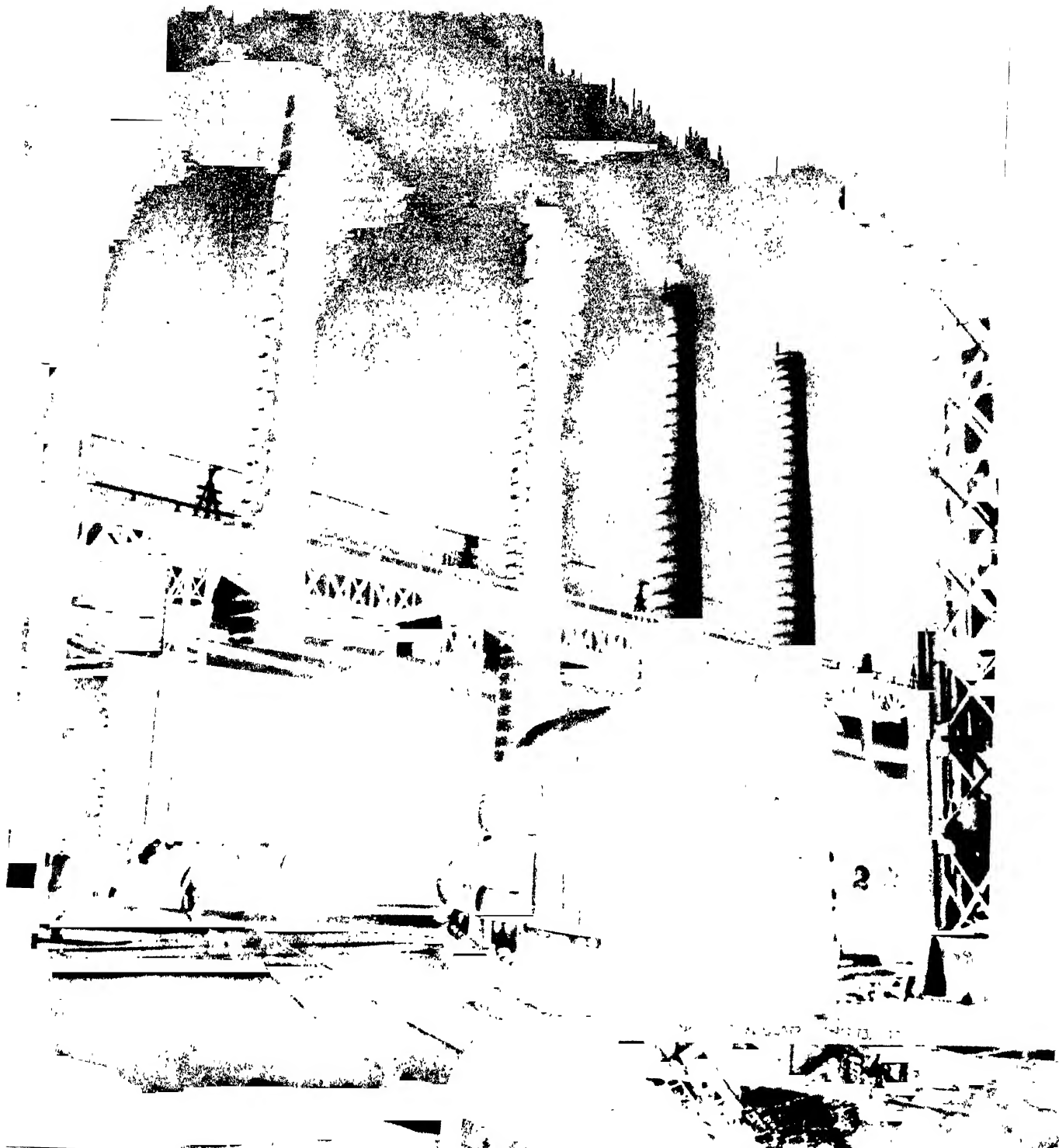
"...the greatest battle ever fought in history at the walls of Stalingrad.

"The Battle of Stalingrad ended in the encirclement and rout of the German army, 300,000 strong, and the capture of about one-third of the surrounded troops. To form an idea of the slaughter on the battlefield of Stalingrad, which was on a scale unprecedented in history, one should know that after the Battle of Stalingrad 147,200 dead German men and officers and 46,700 Soviet men and officers were picked up and buried. Stalingrad marked the beginning of the decline of the German fascist army. It is common knowledge that the Germans never recovered from the Stalingrad slaughter." (Stalin)

The Soviet troops—generals, officers and men—displayed valour and skill in carrying out the plan devised by their leader.

"There can be no doubt that the correct strategy of the Red Army Command and the flexible tactics of our commanders in the field alone enabled them to carry out such an outstanding operation as the surrounding and annihilation of a vast army of picked German troops numbering 330,000 men near Stalingrad." (Stalin)

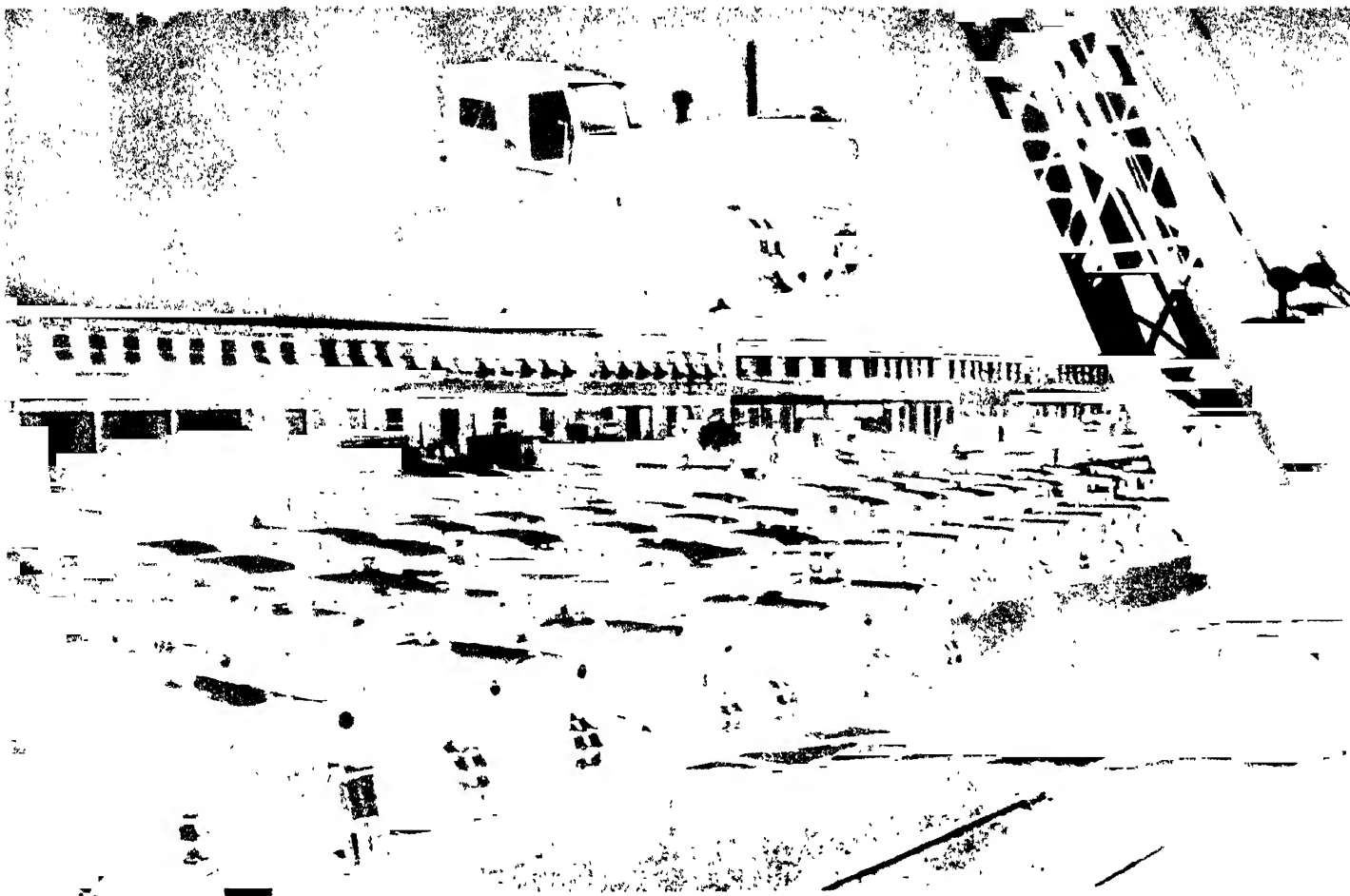
At Stalingrad the people of the Soviet Union emerged with flying colours from a great historic test. From the victory there achieved they draw strength and confidence for the successful accomplishment of the grand tasks of peacetime construction which they have set themselves.



Above: STALINGRAD, 1945. The open hearth workshop of the Red October Works after restoration

Right: STALINGRAD, January 1943. A battle in a workshop of the Red October Works. A Soviet storm group attacking the Germans





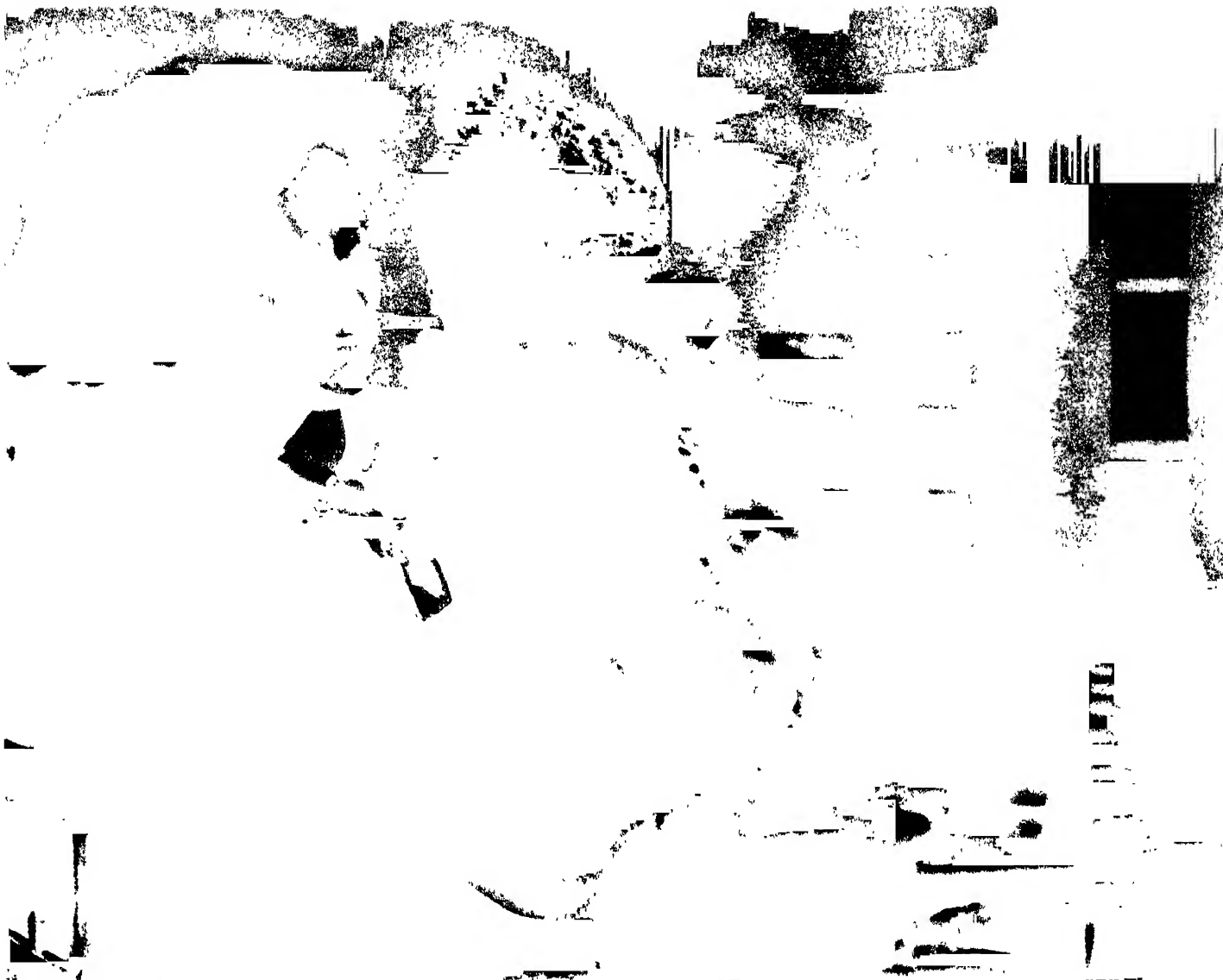
MACHINES MANUFACTURED IN THE RESTORED STALINGRAD TRACTOR PLANT, 1945



One of the newly-built schools. 1945



School children on their way to school along the ruined streets of the hero-



ZOYA VASSILIEVA OF LENINGRAD, WHO IS A FOREMAN AT THE STALINGRAD PLANT, WITH HER DAUGHTER.
Vassilieva went to Stalingrad to help rebuild the hero-city. She has been decorated with the Order of Lenin

THE REBIRTH OF STALINGRAD

GREAT DESTRUCTION was wrought by the Germans in the Soviet cities they occupied during the late war, and the city that suffered the worst was Stalingrad. Nothing but mine-infested ruins were found here after the Germans had been ejected.

The whole country is helping to reconstruct Stalingrad. Lumber is being transported to the city from the Archangel, Kalinin, Penza, Gorky, Vologda and Kostroma regions. Various other building materials are being produced for Stalingrad at plants in Saratov, Rostov, Astrakhan, Kuibyshev. Leading Soviet factories are producing equipment for the reviving industry of Stalingrad.

On the wall of the department store in the cellar of which the German Field Marshal Paulus was taken prisoner there is an inscription which reads: "The youth built Stalingrad; the youth defended the hero-city; the youth will reconstruct it!" Indeed, the overwhelming majority of the rebuilders of Stalingrad are young men and women, foremost among them members of the Young Communist League. YCL organizations throughout the country expedite orders for Stalingrad and guard against delays in freight shipments to the city.

Stalingrad is growing at an unprecedented pace. From only 750 in the days of the city's defence the population has grown to more than 300,000 in the three years following the end of the Battle of Stalingrad. The tractor plant and the Red October Iron and Steel Works, which played a tremendous role in the defence of the city, have been restored; the engineering works, the Electro-Combine, the hydrolysis works, the cannery and many other enterprises are also functioning. Dwellings with 650,000 square metres of floor-space have been built. The railway junction has been restored. The port on the Volga River is functioning.

The Stalingrad Tractor Plant has already supplied the collective and state farms of the country with thousands of tractors.

The Red October Works has attained its pre-war level of production.

Fifty-two schools, three institutes, two theatres and many other cultural institutions have been restored. Four hotels, four hospitals, five maternity homes, 15 polyclinics, 37 children's nurseries, 56 schools, seven cinemas and three theatres will be built under the new Five-Year Plan.

What will reconstructed Stalingrad look like?

The plans drawn up by Karo Alabyan, Member of the Academy of Architecture of the U.S.S.R., Nikolai Polyakov, Corresponding Member of the Academy, Dmitri Sobolev and other architects, retain the city layout along the bank of the Volga; at no point will the city be more than three or four kilometres off the river. Large squares are to be laid out between the various districts.

The railway, oil tanks and warehouses will be moved away from the bank of the Volga to make way for apartment houses and parks. This will provide the population with the healthiest location and will give the city a beautiful skyline as seen from the river. Lawns, shrubbery and bushes cut by fine roadways leading down to the water will fringe the bank.

A Central Park of Culture and Rest is planned on Mamayev Hill, overlooking the river, where particularly fierce engagements were fought during the Battle of Stalingrad. The park will cover a large area and reach right down to the Volga. The Central City Stadium seating about 45,000 spectators and an aquatic sports station will be built along the bank. The valley of the River Tsaritsa, which flows through the city and empties into the Volga, will be part of the park grounds.

The tallest buildings will be built in the centre of the city, on the main thoroughfares and on the district squares. Small houses will line the bank, leaving the buildings in the centre visible from the river.

Since the city, including the suburbs, is to stretch for about 50 kilometres along the Volga, it is very important that its main streets be correctly planned. The general plan provides for two thoroughfares to run the entire length of the city, with a motor highway skirting it. The main street running at a right angle to the Volga will connect the railway and river stations as well as the aerodrome, thus assuring a convenient transfer from one means of transportation to another. There will be fine boulevards in all the districts of the city.

The number of squares will be considerably increased. Along Stalin Prospect, the broad avenue in the centre of the city, there will be many squares, the most important of which will be Theatre Square and the Square of the Fallen Heroes. The House of Soviets, the Stalingrad Railway Offices and other public buildings will be located on the Square of the Fallen Heroes, which is also meant for popular demonstrations and the military parades held on revolutionary holidays.

A broad Avenue of Heroes will lead from the Square of the Fallen Heroes to the Volga and will be lined by statues of the heroes of the Battle of Stalingrad. At the bottom of the avenue, along the river bank, there will be a new square with a Museum of the Defence of Stalingrad and a monument dedicated to the gallant defenders of the city and to the great victory at Stalingrad.

An obelisk looming high over the broad expanse of the great Russian river is to be built on the opposite bank.

That is how Stalingrad is being reborn. That is what this city will look like, the city which played so exceptional a role in the struggle against fascism and whose name is dear to all progressive humanity.



"I have served my country and science for 48 years. The result of my work is a scientific fame which constitutes a source not just of personal pride, but, above all, of general Russian pride."

D. Mendeleev



DMITRI MENDELEYEV

(1834-1907)

MENDELEYEV, the great Russian scientist, was born in Tobolsk, Siberia, in 1834. At the age of 16 he entered the Institute of Pedagogy in St. Petersburg, from which he graduated in 1854. Two years later he presented his thesis for the degree of Master of Sciences in chemistry. After some years abroad, he received his Doctor's degree for a monograph on the combination of alcohol with water, a work of great theoretical and practical significance.

In 1866 he was appointed professor of chemistry at the University of St. Petersburg, where he gave a course of lectures in theoretical, organic and technological chemistry.

Mendeleyev's greatest discovery was the periodic law, set forth in his renowned work, *Principles of Chemistry*, published in 1869. Engels described it as a "feat of scientific research." Mendeleyev's periodic law inaugurated a new era in the history of chemistry.

"Before the promulgation of this law," said Mendeleyev, "the chemical elements were mere fragmentary, incidental facts in nature; there was no special reason to expect the discovery of new elements, and the new ones which were discovered from time to time appeared to be possessed of quite novel properties. The law of periodicity first enabled us to perceive undiscovered elements at a distance which formerly was inaccessible to chemical vision; and long ere they were discovered new elements appeared before our eyes possessed of a number of well-defined properties."

Mendeleyev indeed foretold the existence of hitherto unknown elements, for which he left several blank spaces in his table of elements. He even described their properties. He also disproved the accepted atomic weights of some of the known elements and stated what their real atomic weights were.

The unknown elements whose existence Mendeleyev foretold and whose properties he described were actually discovered in his lifetime. In 1875 Lecoq de Boisbaudran discovered gallium; in 1879 Nilson discovered scandium; and in 1886 Winkler discovered germanium.

Mendeleyev was the first Russian scientist to be invited to deliver a "Faraday Lecture" at the Royal Society in London and at the British Chemical Society. Honorary degrees were conferred on him by the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh and some others. He was elected member of many academies abroad.

Mendeleyev was interested not only in chemistry. His more

than 350 works—essays, books and pamphlets—deal with a wide range of subjects. He made notable contributions to the study of aqueous solutions, of petroleum extraction, the production of smokeless powder, and aeronautics. He was also instrumental in the development of the coal, petroleum and iron and steel industries in Russia. His suggestions concerning the subterranean gasification of coal, the laying of a petroleum pipe line from Baku to the Black Sea, and the development of a northern sea route have been put into effect in the U.S.S.R.

Mendeleyev's books, *Learning to Know Russia* and *Cherished Thoughts*, show that he looked and saw far ahead. When he became interested in petroleum he went to Baku and Pennsylvania, made a study of the petroleum industry, and indicated where wells were to be sunk. He maintained at that early date that petroleum was not just a fuel, but that it provided raw material for the chemical industries.

One of the cherished dreams of the great scientist was that man would one day bring the polar ice under his control. In his study he kept designs of a special ship capable of sailing in the Arctic. They show that he had a profound knowledge of shipbuilding.

Mendeleyev ascended all by himself in a balloon to watch a solar eclipse. He put forward the idea of an investigation of the upper layers of the atmosphere, which he aptly described as the "great weather laboratory."

Mendeleyev was a great patriot. The motive power behind all his activities was the aspiration for the progress of science, industry, and agriculture in his country. But the Russia of his day, Russia of the tsars, was too backward to put into effect his daring ideas. It was only after the revolution, under the Stalin Five-Year Plans, that many of Mendeleyev's bold ideas were put into practice.

Mendeleyev died at the age of 73. He was engaged in scientific research to the very last day of his life. He looked upon work as man's duty and calling. Of himself he once said: "I have served my country and science for 48 years. The result of my work is a scientific fame which constitutes a source not just of personal pride, but, above all, of general Russian pride."

The Russian people is justly proud of its great son, the genius of science Dmitri Mendeleyev, coryphaeus of Russian and world science.



ELECTION MEETING IN THE STALIN ELECTION DISTRICT IN MOSCOW, FEBRUARY 9, 1946. JOSEPH STALIN ON THE ROSTRUM



SPEECH DELIVERED BY J. V. STALIN

at an election meeting

in the Stalin Election District, Moscow

February 9, 1946

COMRADES!

Eight years have passed since the last elections to the Supreme Soviet. This has been a period replete with events of a decisive nature. The first four years were years of intense labour on the part of Soviet people in carrying out the third Five-Year Plan. The second four years covered the events of the war against the German and Japanese aggressors—the events of the Second World War. Undoubtedly, the war was the major event of the past period.

It would be wrong to think that the Second World War broke out accidentally, or as a result of blunders committed by certain statesmen, although blunders were certainly committed. As a matter of fact, the war broke out as the inevitable result of the development of world economic and political forces on the basis of present-day monopolistic capitalism. Marxists have more than once stated that the capitalist system of world economy contains the elements of universal crises and military conflicts, that, in view of this, the development of world capitalism in our times does not proceed smoothly and evenly, but through crises and war catastrophes. The point is that the uneven development of capitalist countries usually leads in, the course of time, to a sharp disturbance of the equilibrium within the world system of capitalism, and that group of capitalist countries which regards itself as being less securely provided with raw materials and markets usually attempts to change the situation and to redistribute "spheres of influence" in its own favour—by employing armed force. As a result of this, the capitalist world is split into two hostile camps, and war breaks out between them.

Perhaps, war catastrophes could be avoided if it were possible periodically to redistribute raw materials and markets among the respective countries in conformity with their economic weight—by means of concerted and peaceful decisions. But this is impossible under the present capitalist conditions of world economic development.

Thus, as a result of the first crisis of the capitalist system of world economy, the First World War broke out; and as a result of the second crisis, the Second World War broke out.

This does not mean, of course, that the Second World War was a copy of the first. On the contrary, the Second World War differed materially in character from the first. It must be borne in mind that before attacking the Allied countries the major fascist states—Germany, Japan and Italy—destroyed the last vestiges of bourgeois-democratic liberties at home and established there a cruel terroristic regime, trampled upon the principle of the sovereignty and free development of small countries, proclaimed as their own the policy of seizing foreign territory, and publicly stated that they were aiming at world domination and the spreading of the fascist regime all over the world; and by seizing Czechoslovakia and the central regions of China, the Axis Powers showed that they were ready to carry out their threat to enslave all the freedom-loving peoples.

In view of this, the Second World War against the Axis Powers, unlike the First World War, assumed from the very outset the character of an anti-fascist war, a war of liberation, one of the tasks of which was to restore democratic liberties. The entry of the Soviet Union into the war against the Axis Powers could only augment—and really did augment—the anti-fascist and liberating character of the Second World War.

It was on this basis that the anti-fascist coalition of the Soviet Union, the United States of America, Great Britain and other freedom-loving countries came into being and later played the decisive role in defeating the armed forces of the Axis Powers.

That is how it stands with the question of the origin and character of the Second World War.

Everybody, probably, now admits that the war was not nor could have been an accident in the lives of the peoples, that it actually became a war of the peoples for their existence, and that for that very reason could not have been a swift or lightning war.

As far as our country is concerned, for her this war was the fiercest and most arduous war in the history of our Motherland.

But the war was not only a curse. It was also a great school in which all the forces of the people were examined and tested. The war laid bare all facts and events in the rear and at the front, it ruthlessly tore down all the veils and coverings that concealed the actual features of states, governments and parties, and brought them onto the stage without masks and without make-up, with all their defects and merits. The war was something in the nature of an examination of our Soviet system, of our State, of our Government and of our Communist Party; and it summed up their work and said, as it were: Here they are, your people and organizations, their life and work—scrutinize them carefully and treat them according to their deserts.

This is one of the positive sides of the war.

For us, for the voters, this is of immense importance, for it helps us quickly and impartially to appraise the activities of the Party and its men, and to draw correct conclusions. At another time we would have had to study the speeches and reports of the representatives of the Party, analyse them, compare their words with their deeds, sum up the results, and so forth. This is a complicated and laborious job, and there is no guarantee against mistakes. It is different now, when the war is over, when the war itself has verified the work of our organizations and leaders and has summed it up. It is now much easier to analyse matters, and arrive at correct conclusions.

And so, what are the results of the war?

There is one principal result, upon which all the others rest. This is, that at the end of the war the enemies sustained defeat and we and our Allies proved to be the victors. We ter-

minated the war with complete victory over our enemies—this is the principal result of the war. But this is too general, and we cannot put a full stop here. Of course, to defeat the enemies in a war such as the Second World War, the like of which has never been witnessed in the history of mankind before, means achieving a victory of world historical importance. All this is true. But still, it is a general result, and we cannot rest content with it. To appreciate the great historical importance of our victory we must analyse the matter more concretely.

And so, how should our victory over the enemies be interpreted? What can this victory signify from the point of view of the state and the development of the internal forces of our country?

Our victory signifies, first of all, that our Soviet social system was victorious, that the Soviet social system successfully passed the test of fire in the war and proved that it is fully viable.

As we know, the foreign press on more than one occasion asserted that the Soviet social system was a "risky experiment" that was doomed to failure, that the Soviet system was a "house of cards" having no foundations in life and imposed upon the people by the Cheka, and that a slight shock from without was sufficient to cause this "house of cards" to collapse.

Now we can say that the war has refuted all these assertions of the foreign press and has proved them to have been groundless. The war proved that the Soviet social system is a genuinely people's system, which grew up from the ranks of the people and enjoys their powerful support; that the Soviet social system is a fully viable and stable form of organization of society.

More than that. The issue now is not whether the Soviet social system is viable or not, because after the object lessons of the war, no sceptic now dares to express doubt concerning the viability of the Soviet social system. Now the issue is that the Soviet social system has proved to be more viable and stable than the non-Soviet social system, that the Soviet social system is a better form of organization of society than any non-Soviet social system.

Secondly, our victory signifies that our Soviet state system was victorious, that our multi-national Soviet state passed all the tests of the war and proved its viability.

As we know, prominent foreign journalists have more than once expressed themselves to the effect that the Soviet multi-national state is an "artificial and shortlived structure," that in the event of any complications arising the collapse of the Soviet Union would be inevitable, that the Soviet Union would share the fate of Austria-Hungary.

Now we can say that the war refuted these statements of the foreign press and proved them to have been devoid of all foundation. The war proved that the Soviet multi-national state system successfully passed the test, grew stronger than ever during the war, and turned out to be quite a viable state system. These gentlemen failed to realize that the analogy of Austria-Hungary was unsound, because our multi-national state grew up not on the bourgeois basis, which stimulates sentiments of national distrust and national enmity, but on the Soviet basis, which, on the contrary, cultivates sentiments of friendship and fraternal co-operation among the peoples of our state.

Incidentally, after the lessons of the war, these gentlemen no longer dare to come out and deny the viability of the Soviet state system. The issue now is no longer the viability of the Soviet state system, because there can be no doubt about

its viability. Now the issue is that the Soviet state system has proved to be a model multi-national state, that the Soviet state system is such a system of state organization in which the national problem and the problem of the co-operation of nations have found a better solution than in any other multi-national state.

Thirdly, our victory signifies that the Soviet armed forces were victorious, that our Red Army was victorious, that the Red Army heroically withstood all the hardships of the war, utterly routed the armies of our enemies, and emerged from the war the victor. (*A voice: "Under Comrade Stalin's leadership!" All rise. Loud and prolonged applause, rising to an ovation.*)

Now, everybody, friends and enemies alike, admit that the Red Army proved equal to its tremendous task. But this was not the case six years ago, in the period before the war. As we know, prominent foreign journalists, and many recognized authorities on military affairs abroad, repeatedly stated that the condition of the Red Army roused grave doubts, that the Red Army was poorly armed and lacked a proper commanding staff, that its morale was beneath criticism, that while it might be fit for defence, it was unfit for attack, and that, if struck by the German troops, the Red Army would collapse like "a colossus with feet of clay." Such statements were made not only in Germany, but also in France, Great Britain and America.

Now we can say that the war refuted all these statements and proved them to have been groundless and ridiculous. The war proved that the Red Army is not "a colossus with feet of clay," but a first-class modern army, equipped with the most up-to-date armaments, led by most experienced commanders and possessed of high morale and fighting qualities. It must not be forgotten that the Red Army is the army which utterly routed the German army, the army which only yesterday struck terror in the hearts of the armies of the European states.

It must be noted that the "critics" of the Red Army are becoming fewer and fewer. More than that. Comments are more and more frequently appearing in the foreign press noting the high qualities of the Red Army, the skill of its men and commanders, and the flawlessness of its strategy and tactics. This is understandable. After the brilliant victories the Red Army achieved at Moscow and Stalingrad, at Kursk and Belgorod, at Kiev and Kirovograd, at Minsk and Bobruisk, at Leningrad and Tallinn, at Jassy and Lvov, on the Vistula and the Niemen, on the Danube and the Oder and at Vienna and Berlin—after all this, it is impossible not to admit that the Red Army is a first-class army, from which much can be learned. (*Loud applause.*)

This is how we concretely understand the victory of our country achieved over her enemies.

Such, in the main, are the results of the war.

It would be wrong to think that such a historical victory could have been achieved without the preliminary preparation of the whole country for active defence. It would be no less wrong to assume that such preparation could have been made in a short space of time, in a matter of three or four years. It would be still more wrong to assert that our victory was entirely due to the bravery of our troops. Without bravery it is, of course, impossible to achieve victory. But bravery alone is not enough to overpower an enemy who possesses a vast army, first-class armaments, well-trained officers and fairly well-organized supplies. To withstand the blow of such an enemy, to resist him and then to inflict utter defeat upon him it was necessary to have, in addition to the unexampled brav-

ery of our troops, fully up-to-date armaments, and in sufficient quantities, and well-organized supplies, also in sufficient quantities. But for this it was necessary to have, and in sufficient quantities, elementary things such as: *metals*—for the production of armaments, equipment and industrial machinery; *fuel*—to ensure the operation of industry and transport; *cotton*—to manufacture army clothing; *grain*—to supply the army with food.

Can it be maintained that before entering the Second World War our country already possessed the necessary minimum of the material potentialities needed to satisfy these main requirements? I think it can. To prepare for this immense task we had to carry out three Five-Year Plans of national-economic development. It was precisely these three Five-Year Plans that enabled us to create these material potentialities. At all events, the situation in our country in this respect was ever so much better before the Second World War, in 1940, than it was before the First World War, in 1913.

What were the material potentialities at our country's disposal before the Second World War?

To help you to understand this I shall have to make you a brief report on the activities of the Communist Party in the matter of preparing our country for active defence.

If we take the data for 1940—the eve of the Second World War—and compare it with the data for 1913—the eve of the First World War—we shall get the following picture.

In 1913 there was produced in our country 4,220,000 tons of *pig iron*, 4,230,000 tons of *steel*, 29,000,000 tons of *coal*, 9,000,000 tons of *oil*, 21,600,000 tons of *marketable grain* and 740,000 tons of *raw cotton*.

Such were the material potentialities of our country when she entered the First World War.

This was the economic basis old Russia could utilize for the purpose of prosecuting the war.

As regards 1940, in that year the following was produced in our country: 15,000,000 tons of *pig iron*, i.e., nearly four times as much as in 1913; 18,300,000 tons of *steel*, i.e., four and a half times as much as in 1913; 166,000,000 tons of *coal*, i.e., five and a half times as much as in 1913; 31,000,000 tons of *oil*, i.e., three and a half times as much as in 1913; 38,300,000 tons of *marketable grain*, i.e., 17,000,000 tons more than in 1913; 2,700,000 tons of *raw cotton*, i.e., three and a half times as much as in 1913.

Such were the material potentialities of our country when she entered the Second World War.

This was the economic basis the Soviet Union could utilize for the purpose of prosecuting the war.

The difference, as you see, is colossal.

This unprecedented growth of production cannot be regarded as the simple and ordinary development of a country from backwardness to progress. It was a leap by which our Motherland became transformed from a backward country into an advanced country, from an agrarian into an industrial country.

This historic transformation was brought about in the course of three Five-Year Plans, beginning with 1928—with the first year of the first Five-Year Plan period. Up to that time we had to restore our ruined industries and heal the wounds inflicted upon us by the First World War and the Civil War. If we take into consideration the fact that the first Five-Year Plan was carried out in four years, and that the execution of the third Five-Year Plan was interrupted by the war in the fourth year, it works out that the transformation of our country from an agrarian into an industrial country took only about thirteen years.

It cannot but be admitted that thirteen years is an incredibly short period for the execution of such a gigantic task.

It is this that explains the storm of controversy that broke out in the foreign press at the time these figures were published. Our friends decided that a "miracle" had happened; those who were ill-disposed towards us proclaimed that the Five-Year Plans were "Bolshevik propaganda" and "tricks of the Cheka." But as miracles do not happen and the Cheka is not so powerful as to be able to annul the laws of social development, "public opinion" abroad was obliged to resign itself to the facts.

By what policy was the Communist Party able to create these material potentialities in so short a time?

First of all by the Soviet policy of industrializing the country.

The Soviet method of industrializing the country differs radically from the capitalist method of industrialization. In capitalist countries, industrialization usually starts with light industry. In view of the fact that light industry requires less investments, that capital turnover is faster, and profits are made more easily than in heavy industry, light industry becomes the first object of industrialization in those countries. Only after the passage of a long period of time, during which light industry accumulates profits and concentrates them in the banks, only after this does the turn of heavy industry come and accumulations begin gradually to be transferred to heavy industry for the purpose of creating conditions for its development. But this is a long process, which takes a long time, running into several decades, during which you have to wait while the light industry develops and do without heavy industry. Naturally, the Communist Party could not take this path. The Party knew that war was approaching, that it would be impossible to defend our country without heavy industry, that it was necessary to set to work to develop heavy industry as quickly as possible, and that to be belated in this matter meant courting defeat. The Party remembered what Lenin said about it being impossible to protect the independence of our country without heavy industry, and about the likelihood of the Soviet system perishing without heavy industry. The Communist Party of our country therefore rejected the "ordinary" path of industrialization and commenced the industrialization of the country by developing heavy industry. This was a very difficult task, but one that could be accomplished. It was greatly facilitated by the nationalization of industry and the banks, which made it possible quickly to collect funds and transfer them to heavy industry.

There can be no doubt that without this it would have been impossible to transform our country into an industrial country in so short a time.

Secondly, by the policy of collectivizing agriculture.

To put an end to our backwardness in agriculture and to provide the country with the largest possible amount of marketable grain, cotton, and so forth, it was necessary to pass from small peasant farming to large-scale farming, for only large-scale farming can employ modern machinery, utilize all the achievements of agricultural science and provide the largest possible quantity of marketable produce. But there are two kinds of large-scale farming—capitalist and collective. The Communist Party could not take the capitalist path of developing agriculture not only on grounds of principle, but also because that path presupposes an exceedingly long process of development and calls for the ruination of the peasants and their transformation into agricultural labourers. The Communist Party therefore took the path of collectivizing agriculture, the path of organizing large farms by uniting the peasant farms into collective farms. The collective method

proved to be an exceedingly progressive method not only because it did not call for the ruination of the peasants, but also, and particularly, because it enabled us in the course of several years to cover the entire country with large collective farms capable of employing modern machinery, of utilizing all the achievements of agricultural science and of providing the country with the largest possible quantity of marketable produce.

There is no doubt that without the policy of collectivization we would not have been able to put an end to the age-long backwardness of our agriculture in so short a time.

It cannot be said that the Party's policy met with no resistance. Not only backward people, who always refuse to listen to anything that is new, but even many prominent members of the Party persistently tried to pull our Party back, and by every possible means tried to drag it onto the "ordinary" capitalist path of development. All the anti-Party machinations of the Trotskyites and of the Rights, all their "activities" in sabotaging the measures of our Government, pursued the one object of frustrating the Party's policy and of hindering industrialization and collectivization. But the Party yielded neither to the threats of some nor to the howling of others and confidently marched forward in spite of everything. It is to the Party's credit that it did not adjust itself to the backward, that it was not afraid to swim against the current, and that all the time it held on to its position of the leading force. There can be no doubt that if the Communist Party had not displayed this staunchness and perseverance it would have been unable to uphold the policy of industrializing the country and of collectivizing agriculture.

Was the Communist Party able to make proper use of the material potentialities created in this way for the purpose of developing war production and of supplying the Red Army with the armaments it needed?

I think it was, and that it did so with the utmost success.

Leaving out of account the first year of the war, when the evacuation of industry to the East hindered the work of developing war production, we can say that during the three succeeding years of the war the Party achieved such successes as enabled it not only to supply the front with sufficient quantities of artillery, machine guns, rifles, aeroplanes, tanks and ammunition, but also to accumulate reserves. Moreover, as is well known, the quality of our armaments was not only not inferior but, in general, even superior to the German.

It is well known that during the last three years of the war our tank industry produced annually an average of over 30,000 tanks, self-propelled guns and armoured cars. (*Loud applause.*)

It is well known, further, that in the same period our aircraft industry produced annually up to 40,000 aeroplanes. (*Loud applause.*)

It is also well known that our artillery industry in the same period produced annually up to 120,000 guns of all calibres (*loud applause*), up to 450,000 light and heavy machine guns (*loud applause*), over 3,000,000 rifles (*applause*) and about 2,000,000 automatic rifles. (*Applause.*)

Lastly, it is well known that our mortar industry in the period of 1942-44 produced annually an average of up to 100,000 mortars. (*Loud applause.*)

It goes without saying that simultaneously we produced corresponding quantities of artillery shells, mines of various kinds, air bombs, and rifle and machine-gun cartridges.

It is well known, for example, that in 1944 alone we produced over 240,000,000 shells, bombs and mines (*applause*) and 7,400,000,000 cartridges. (*Loud applause.*)

Such is the general picture of the way the Red Army was supplied with arms and ammunition.

As you see, it does not resemble the picture of the way our army was supplied during the First World War, when the front suffered from a chronic shortage of artillery and shells, when the army fought without tanks and aircraft, and when one rifle was issued for every three men.

As regards supplying the Red Army with food and clothing, it is common knowledge that the front not only felt no shortage whatever in this respect, but even had the necessary reserves.

This is how the matter stands as regards the activities of the Communist Party of our country in the period up to the beginning of the war and during the war.

Now a few words about the Communist Party's plans of work for the immediate future. As you know, these plans are formulated in the new Five-Year Plan, which is to be adopted in the very near future. The main tasks of the new Five-Year Plan are to rehabilitate the devastated regions of our country, to restore industry and agriculture to the pre-war level, and then to exceed that level to a more or less considerable extent. Apart from the fact that the rationing system is to be abolished in the very near future (*loud and prolonged applause*), special attention will be devoted to the expansion of the production of consumers' goods, to raising the standard of living of the working people by steadily reducing the prices of all commodities (*loud and prolonged applause*), and to the extensive organization of scientific research institutes of every kind (*applause*) capable of giving the fullest scope to our scientific forces. (*Loud applause.*)

I have no doubt that if we give our scientists proper assistance they will be able in the very near future not only to overtake but even outstrip the achievements of science beyond the borders of our country. (*Prolonged applause.*)

As regards long-term plans, our Party intends to organize another powerful uplift of our national economy that will enable us to raise our industry to a level, say, three times as high as that of pre-war industry. We must see to it that our industry shall be able to produce annually up to 50,000,000 tons of pig iron (*prolonged applause*), up to 60,000,000 tons of steel (*prolonged applause*), up to 500,000,000 tons of coal (*prolonged applause*) and up to 60,000,000 tons of oil (*prolonged applause*). Only when we succeed in doing that can we be sure that our Motherland will be insured against all contingencies. (*Loud applause.*) This will need, perhaps, another three Five-Year Plan periods, if not more. But it can be done, and we must do it. (*Loud applause.*)

This, then, is my brief report on the activities of the Communist Party during the recent past and on its plans of work for the future. (*Loud and prolonged applause.*)

It is for you to judge to what extent the Party has been and is working on the proper lines (*applause*), and whether it would not have worked better. (*Laughter and applause.*)

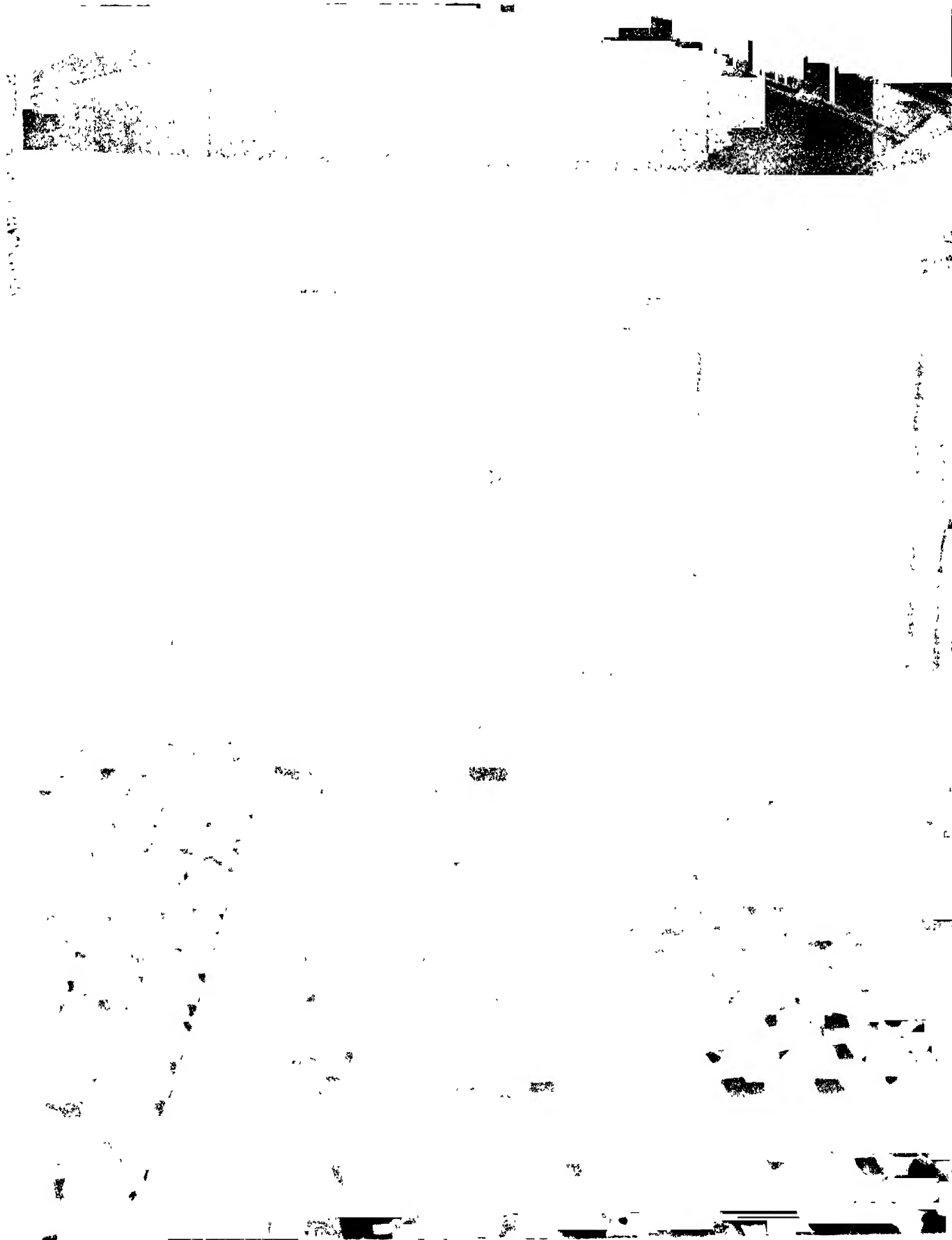
It is said that victors are not judged (*laughter and applause*), that they must not be criticized, that they must not be inquired into. This is not true. Victors may and should be judged (*laughter and applause*), they may and should be criticized and inquired into. This is beneficial not only for the cause, but also for the victors (*laughter and applause*); there will be less swelled-headedness, and there will be more modesty. (*Laughter and applause.*) I regard the election campaign as a court of the voters sitting in judgment over the Communist Party as the ruling party. The result of the election will be the voters' verdict. (*Laughter and applause.*) The Communist

Party of our country would not be worth much if it feared criticism and investigation. The Communist Party is ready to receive the verdict of the voters. (*Loud applause.*)

In this election contest the Communist Party does not stand alone. It is going to the polls in a bloc with the non-Party people. In the past Communists were somewhat distrustful of non-Party people and of non-Party-ism. This was due to the fact that various bourgeois groups, who thought it was not to their advantage to come before the voters without a mask, not infrequently used the non-Party flag as a screen. This was the case in the past. Times are different now. Non-Party people are now separated from the bourgeoisie by a barrier called the Soviet social system. And on this side of the barrier the non-Party people are united with the Communists in one, common, collective body of Soviet people. Within this collective body they fought side by side to consolidate the might of our country, they fought side by side and shed their blood on the various fronts for the sake of the freedom and

greatness of our Motherland, and side by side they hammered out and forged our country's victory over her enemies. The only difference between them is that some belong to the Party and some don't. But this difference is only a formal one. The important thing is that all are engaged in one common cause. That is why the Communist and non-Party bloc is a natural and vital thing. (*Loud and prolonged applause.*)

In conclusion, permit me to express my thanks for the confidence which you have shown me (*loud and prolonged applause. A voice: "Cheers for the great leader of all our victories, Comrade Stalin!"*) by nominating me as a candidate for the Supreme Soviet. You need have no doubt that I will do my best to justify your confidence. (*All rise. Loud and prolonged applause rising to an ovation. Voices in different parts of the hall: "Long live great Stalin, Hurrah!" "Cheers for the great leader of the peoples!" "Glory to great Stalin!" "Long live Comrade Stalin, the candidate of the entire people!" "Glory to the creator of all our victories, Comrade Stalin!"*)



HALL OF SESSIONS IN THE KREMLIN. FIRST SESSION OF THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE U.S.S.R., 1946

FEBRUARY 10, 1946

ELECTIONS TO THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE U.S.S.R.

ELECTIONS of deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. were held in the Soviet Union on February 10, 1946. 101,450,936 people or 99.7 per cent of the total number of registered voters took part in the elections. The candidates of the Communist and non-Party *bloc* for the Soviet of the Union received 99.18 per cent, those for the Soviet of Nationalities 99.16 per cent, of the votes cast.

THE SOVIET OF THE UNION

THE SOVIET OF THE UNION consists of 682 deputies out of whom 287 or 42 per cent are workers and 151 or 22 per cent are peasants. Two hundred and thirty-one of the workers and 57 of the peasant deputies are Communist Party or government workers, business managers, military or social workers. The other peasant deputies are directly engaged in farming; 44 of them are chairmen of collective farms.

Among the deputies are 169 Communist Party and social workers, 196 workers in various Soviets, central or local, 41 business managers, 57 scientists and cultural workers. Some of the foremost Soviet scientists are deputies to the Soviet of the Union.

Party affiliation: 576 deputies are members of the All-Union Communist Party (Bolsheviks), 106 are non-Party people.

One hundred and sixteen deputies are women.

Five hundred and thirty-five deputies (78 per cent) have been decorated with Orders and Medals of the Soviet Union; 49 are Heroes of the Soviet Union, among them 11 who are twice, and 3 who are thrice Heroes of the Soviet Union; 39 are Heroes of Socialist Labour, and 19 are Stalin Prize winners.

Education: 250 have a higher education, 39—an unfinished higher education, and 160—a secondary education.

Age: 12 deputies are between 23 and 25; 97 between 26 and 35; 176 between 36 and 40; 194 between 41 and 45; 114 between 46 and 50; and 89 are over 50.

THE SOVIET OF NATIONALITIES

OF THE DEPUTIES to the Soviet of Nationalities 224 are workers (34.1 per cent), 198 peasants (30.1 per cent) and 235 office employees and representatives of the Soviet intelligentsia (35.8 per cent). One hundred and seventy-eight of the worker and 75 of the peasant deputies are Communist Party or government workers, business managers, military or social workers.

One hundred and sixty-one deputies are women (24.5 per cent).

The deputies include 54 Heroes of the Soviet Union, 13 Heroes of Socialist Labour, 16 Stalin Prize winners; 447 deputies (68 per cent) have been awarded government decorations.

Party affiliation: 509 deputies are members of the All-Union Communist Party (Bolsheviks), 148 are non-Party people.

Education: 195 deputies (29.7 per cent) have a higher education, 32 (4.9 per cent)—an unfinished higher education, and 40 (21.3 per cent)—a secondary education.

Age: 34 deputies are between 23 and 25; 55 between 26 and 30; 95 between 31 and 35; 145 between 36 and 40; 170 between 41 and 45; 75 between 46 and 50; 37 between 51 and 55; 20 between 56 and 60; and 26 over 60.

10

FEBRUARY
1837

Alexander
Pushkin
died



Sculpture by R. Bach

MEMORIAL TO ALEXANDER PUSHKIN IN DETSKOYE SELO (NEAR LENINGRAD)

ALEXANDER PUSHKIN

(1799-1837)

ALEXANDER PUSHKIN, the great Russian poet, was born in Moscow. His father was an officer of one of the Guard Regiments and subsequently held a post in the Civil Service, from which he resigned to live on the income from his estate. An uncle of his, Vassili Pushkin, the author of *Dangerous Neighbour*, an excellent humorous poem, had made a name for himself as a writer of verse.

The boy Alexander early showed a literary bent. He was a voracious reader and at eight already began to compose verses.

He attended the lyceum of Tsarskoye Selo where he found among his schoolmates a number of youths who were afterwards to leave their mark upon the life of Russia, such as Ivan Pushchin and Wilhelm Küchelbecker, members of the secret Society of the North, whose aim and purpose was to destroy the autocracy and serfdom; Anton Delvig, poet and co-publisher of *Literaturnaya Gazeta* (*Literary Gazette*); and Fyodor Matushkin, admiral and Polar explorer.

The years he spent at the lyceum definitely shaped Pushkin's literary leanings and nurtured his poetic gift. He wrote much and with uncommon persistency. He was still within its walls when his verses first appeared in print (1814), in the magazine *Vestnik Evropy* (*Herald of Europe*) and when he commenced work on his first big poem, *Ruslan and Ludmila*.

Upon his graduation he entered the literary and public life of St. Petersburg. His political views were akin to those of the Decembrists, as the members of the secret society that organized a rebellion against the tsar on December 14, 1825 came to be called. Young Pushkin's political versifications—*Ode to Liberty*, *To Chaadayev*, *Village*, and his epigrams, pointed at the emperor and his entourage, replete with passionate protest against the "annihilating disgrace" of serfdom and the tyranny of the absolutist government,—had a strong effect on the Decembrist movement. His free thought verse earned him an order of banishment, issued by Alexander I in 1820. He spent more than six years in exile, living in the south of Russia and in the village of Mikhailovo, Pakov gubernia.

At the end of 1826 the poet took up his abode in Moscow, where he married in 1831, and in the same year removed with his family to St. Petersburg. After his return from exile and until his dying day Pushkin was kept under strict gendarme surveillance, and the publication of his works required the imprimatur of the emperor himself. "No Russian writer is more harassed than I," Pushkin would remark with bitterness. But he fought manfully on to maintain the independence of his creative thought.

Pushkin's literary activity was highly diversified. He was poet, playwright, prose-writer, critic, historian, translator and journalist all combined. He was the founder and, together with Delvig, the publisher of the magazine *Sovremennik* (*Contemporary*) and *Literaturnaya Gazeta*.

Pushkin inaugurated a new era in Russian literature and Russian culture generally. He will go down in history as the father of modern literary Russian. He was a man of letters who pioneered in all departments of his profession. His *Eugene Onegin*, a novel in verse, was the first realistic Russian novel; his *Boris Godunov*, an historical tragedy, was the first national Russian drama; his story *The Stage-Coach Master* was the first in Russian literature to take as its theme the lot

of the "lowly and humiliated" common people. His lyrical creations, rich in ideas and forms, were faith incarnate in the mighty power of reason.

A considerable portion of his works deals with history. "The history of the people belongs to the poet," Pushkin used to say. The peasant uprising of the eighteenth century is dealt with in a tale entitled *The Captain's Daughter*, while his *History of Pugachev* is a boldly conceived disquisition on the same general subject. Of Peter I, whose work of reformation deeply interested the poet, he wrote in his *The Moor of Peter the Great*, a novel; *Poltava*, and *The Bronze Horseman*, poems; and *The History of Peter the Great*, which he did not finish.

Pushkin dreamt of the time when "the dawn of enchanting happiness" would rise, when, "moments of hallowed freedom" would arrive and "Russia" would be "roused from her sleep." His heart was set on bringing nearer that blissful day. No wonder the great poet wrote shortly before his death in his poem that bears the epigraph: *Exegi Monumentum*:

*I shall be loved, and long the people will remember
The kindly thoughts I stirred—my music's brightest crown,
How in this cruel age I celebrated freedom,
And begged for ruth toward those cast down.*

Suffused with wisdom and apprehension, the poet's love of Russia was love that called to action. The poetic faculty was, to him, a "formidable gift" possessed of "vast power over minds." And he affirmed: "All things in . . . Russia must create, and create they must in the . . . Russian tongue."

Pushkin gained the love and admiration of all progressive Russians. It was his good fortune to be recognized a national genius in his lifetime.

His love of freedom, the boldness of his muse placed at the service of the people, lay at the bottom of the conflict that developed between the poet and "high society" at St. Petersburg. He became enmeshed in a network of intrigue and slander, the upshot of which was a duel, fought in 1837, in which the great poet was killed. The murder aroused such a powerful wave of popular indignation that the government of Nicholas I ordered Pushkin to be buried in secret.

Pushkin greatly influenced the entire subsequent course of development of Russian literature. In an appraisal of his importance to Russian culture, Vissarion Belinsky wrote in 1846:

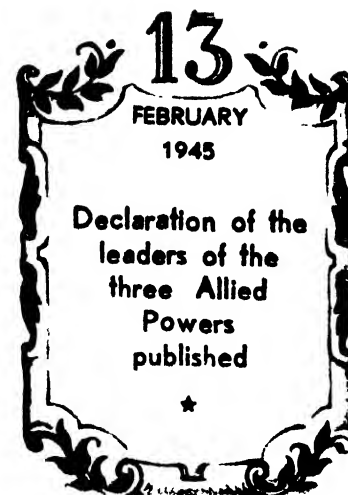
"He will always remain great, an exemplary master of poetry, and teacher of art. His poetry possessed the peculiar virtue of being able to develop in people a sense of artistic refinement and a sense of humanity. . . . The time will come when he will be held up in Russia as a classical poet, whose works will guide the formation and development of not only the aesthetic but also the moral sense."

Maxim Gorky considered Pushkin "the greatest artist in the world," calling him "the beginning of all beginnings" of Russian literature, the "founder of our poetry, and always the teacher of all of us."

The works of Alexander Pushkin have been translated into many languages.

CRIMEA CONFERENCE OF LEADERS OF THREE ALLIED POWERS— SOVIET UNION, UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND GREAT BRITAIN

Excerpts from Official Statement



THE OCCUPATION AND CONTROL OF GERMANY

...It is our inflexible purpose to destroy German militarism and Nazism and to insure that Germany will never again be able to disturb the peace of the world. We are determined to disarm and disband all German armed forces; break up for all time the German General Staff that has repeatedly contrived the resurgence of German militarism; remove or destroy all German military equipment; eliminate or control all German industry that could be used for military production; bring all war criminals to just and swift punishment and exact reparation in kind for the

destruction wrought by the Germans; wipe out the Nazi party, Nazi laws, organizations and institutions, remove all Nazi and militarist influences from public office and from the cultural and economic life of the German people; and take in harmony such other measures in Germany as may be necessary to the future peace and safety of the world. It is not our purpose to destroy the people of Germany, but only when Nazism and militarism have been extirpated will there be hope for a decent life for Germans, and a place for them in the comity of nations.

DECLARATION ON LIBERATED EUROPE

We have drawn up and subscribed to a Declaration on liberated Europe. This Declaration provides for concerting the policies of the Three Powers and for joint action by them in meeting the political and economic problems of liberated Europe in accordance with democratic principles. The text of the Declaration is as follows:

"The Premier of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, and the President of the United States of America have consulted with each other in the common interests of the peoples of their countries and those of liberated Europe. They jointly declare their mutual agreement to concert during the temporary period of instability in liberated Europe the policies of their three Governments in assisting the peoples liberated from the domination of Nazi Germany and the peoples of the former Axis satellite states of Europe to solve by democratic means their pressing political and economic problems.

"The establishment of order in Europe and the rebuilding of national economic life must be achieved by

processes which will enable the liberated peoples to destroy the last vestiges of Nazism and Fascism and to create democratic institutions of their own choice. This is a principle of the Atlantic Charter—the right of all peoples to choose the form of government under which they will live—the restoration of sovereign rights and self-government to those peoples who have been forcibly deprived of them by the aggressor nations.

"To foster the conditions in which the liberated peoples may exercise these rights, the three Governments will jointly assist the people in any European liberated state or former Axis satellite state in Europe where in their judgment conditions require (a) to establish conditions of internal peace; (b) to carry out emergency measures for the relief of distressed people; (c) to form interim governmental authorities broadly representative of all democratic elements in the population and pledged to the earliest possible establishment through free elections of governments responsible to the will of the people; and (d) to facilitate where necessary the holding of such elections...."

UNITY FOR PEACE AS FOR WAR

...Our meeting here in the Crimea has reaffirmed our common determination to maintain and strengthen in the peace to come that unity of purpose and of action which has made victory possible and certain for the United Nations in this war. We believe that this is a sacred obligation which our Governments owe to our peoples and to all the peoples of the world.

Only with the continuing and growing co-operation and understanding among our three countries and

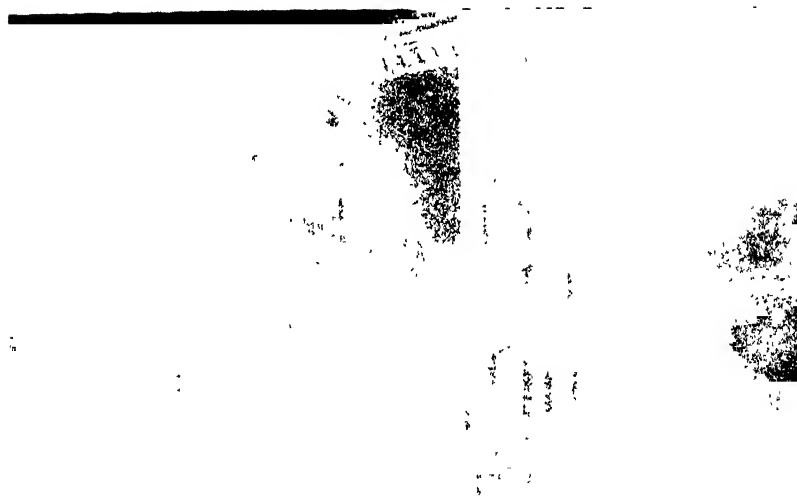
among all the peace-loving nations can the highest aspiration of humanity be realized—a secure and lasting peace which will, in the words of the Atlantic Charter, “afford assurance that all the men in all the lands may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want.”

Victory in this war and establishment of the proposed international organization will provide the greatest opportunity in all history to create in the years to come the essential conditions of such a peace.

WINSTON S. CHURCHILL

FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

J. V. STALIN



LIVADIA, CRIMEA

The palace in which the
Conference took place

17

FEBRUARY
1935

Model Rules
of the
Agricultural Artel
Ratified



7

THE LENIN COLLECTIVE FARM
TAMBOV DISTRICT, R.S.F.S.R.

1. The collective farmers are perusing the Act granting them the use of the land in perpetuity
2. Agronomy Lecture Room at the collective farm. The agronomist (centre) and her students
3. The collective farm's crèche
4. The family of leading collective farmer Suslin (four persons) together earned 1,200 work-day units in one season
5. In the collective farm's repair shop
6. The collective farm's flock of sheep
7. The power station on the collective farm
8. Krister, a noted breeder of calves, who has worked for 20 years at her profession. She has been decorated with the Order of Lenin

SOCIALIST AGRICULTURE IN THE U.S.S.R.

THE COLLECTIVE-FARM SYSTEM, large-scale socialist agriculture, represents the practical embodiment of the great ideas of Lenin and his brilliant successor, J.V. Stalin.

The most difficult task after the seizure of power by the working class—the task of reorganizing the many millions of small and minute peasant holdings, of diverting them from individual private farming into collective, large-scale socialist farming—had as its theoretical basis Lenin's co-operative plan. This plan outlined a course for introducing in agriculture the principles of collectivism, first in the field of marketing, and later in the field of production; it showed how the small peasant holdings were to be radically transformed along socialist lines. The simplest forms of co-operation such as marketing gradually prepared the small peasant for co-operation also in production—the collective farm. The collective farm, as a species of productive co-operation, was a component part of Lenin's co-operative plan. Drawing theoretical conclusions from the first experiences in collective-farm development, Stalin thoroughly developed the Lenin co-operative plan and worked out a complete program of collectivizing agriculture. Under his leadership this plan was put into practice.

Speaking of the preliminary conditions for a mass transition of peasants to the new path, the collective-farm path, Stalin stated at the First All-Union Congress of Collective-Farm Shock Workers in 1933:

"... in order to adopt the collective-farm path it was necessary first of all to accomplish the October Revolution, to overthrow the capitalists and the landlords, to take their land and factories away from them and to build up a new industry.

"It was really with the October Revolution that the transition to the new path, to the collective-farm path, started."

On the night of October 26 (November 8), 1917, when the Second Congress of Soviets proclaimed the passing of all power in the country to the Soviets, a decree on land, written by Lenin, was adopted. Landlord ownership of land was abolished immediately and without any compensation. All land in the country was nationalized, i.e., declared the property of the workers' and peasants' state, national property. The Soviet state granted to the peasants the free use of more than 150,000,000 hectares of landlord estates and other lands. The peasants were freed from the expenses of buying or renting land. Before the revolution they had paid the landlords an annual rent of 500,000,000 rubles in gold. The revolution abolished these payments and liquidated the debt of the villages to the agrarian bank. But the abolition of landlord ownership did not fully solve the problem of freeing the peasants from want and exploitation. Lenin told the toiling peasantry that "there is no escape from poverty in small-scale agriculture," that the kulaks who remained in the villages "have been gathering the landed estates into their hands; they are once more enslaving the poor peasants." "If we continue, as of old, on our small farms," Lenin taught, "even as free citizens on free land, we shall still be faced with inevitable ruin."

Until 1929 the Soviet government pursued a policy of restraining the kulaks, this most numerous class of exploiters. Higher taxes were imposed on the kulaks who had to sell grain to the government at fixed prices. The Soviet law on the renting of land imposed limitations on the use of land by kulaks, and the law allowing the use of hired labour in individual peasant farming restricted the extent of kulak farming. This policy retarded the growth of the kulak class, and forced out and ruined certain sections of them who could not hold up under these curbs. At the same time the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet government consistently put into practice the Lenin-Stalin co-operative plan, rendering all possible aid and support to the voluntary farmers' associations, the collective farms, and developed large-scale state agricultural enterprises—the state farms.

At the end of 1929, owing to the growth of the collective and state farms, the Soviet government launched a new policy, the policy of liquidating the kulaks as a class, on the basis of solid collectivization. This policy corresponded to the vital interests of the overwhelming majority of the peasants and found complete support in the villages. A powerful collective-farm movement developed in the country. Peasants joined collective farms in whole villages, sweeping the kulaks away and liberating themselves from kulak bondage.

Stalin was the inspirer and organizer of this profound revolutionary change whose results equalled in importance those of the revolutionary upheaval of October 1917. In place of the 25,000,000 small individual peasant holdings 240,000 collective farms were organized in the country. The number of state farms reached 4,000. The socialist system of economy became the only form of agriculture in the country.

The agricultural artel (co-operative enterprise) in which the personal interests of the collective farmers are harmoniously combined with those of the socialist state, with the interests of the whole of society, became consolidated in the village.

Reconstruction of agriculture on the basis of modern technical methods was in the main already completed by the end of the second Five-Year Plan period (1933-37). As a result of the successful industrialization of the country, the building of tractor and combine plants and agricultural-implement factories, agriculture in the U.S.S.R. became the most highly mechanized in the world. There were 7,069 machine and tractor stations in 1940. The principal field-work was mechanized with the aid of these stations. More than 500,000 tractors and over 150,000 combines were in operation in the agriculture of the country on the eve of the Second World War. The machine and tractor stations and the collective farms had 146,000 motor vehicles.

Agriculture in the U.S.S.R., like industry, began to develop in a planned manner, according to the laws of extended socialist reproduction.

By 1940 the area under crop was increased by more than 30,000,000 hectares as compared with the pre-revolutionary period (1913).

The total output of agricultural produce greatly increased, and so did the quantity available for the market. The following figures describe the remarkable progress made by the collective and state farms.

Tsarist Russia harvested an average of 4,000,000,000 to 5,000,000,000 poods of grain. The U.S.S.R. harvested 7,300,000,000 poods of grain in 1940.

In 1913 the marketed grain output amounted to 26 per cent of the total grain harvest. In 1938 it reached 40 per cent.

In 1913 the agriculture of the country yielded 21,600,000 tons of grain for the market.

In 1940 the collective and state farms yielded 38,300,000 tons of marketable grain.

Tsarist Russia imported nearly 60 per cent of industrial cotton; only 740,000 tons of cotton were grown in the country in 1913. In 1940 the collective and state farms of the U.S.S.R. harvested 2,700,000 tons of cotton.

Russia has long been known as the principal producer of flax-fibre. The total production of flax-fibre in 1913 amounted to 330,000 tons. The collective farms attained new records in the development of Russian flax-growing. In 1940, 565,000 tons of flax-fibre were harvested.

Great progress was achieved in the production of sugar beets. In 1913, 10,900,000 tons of sugar beets were harvested in the country and in 1940 the sugar-beet harvest had already reached close to 21,000,000 tons.

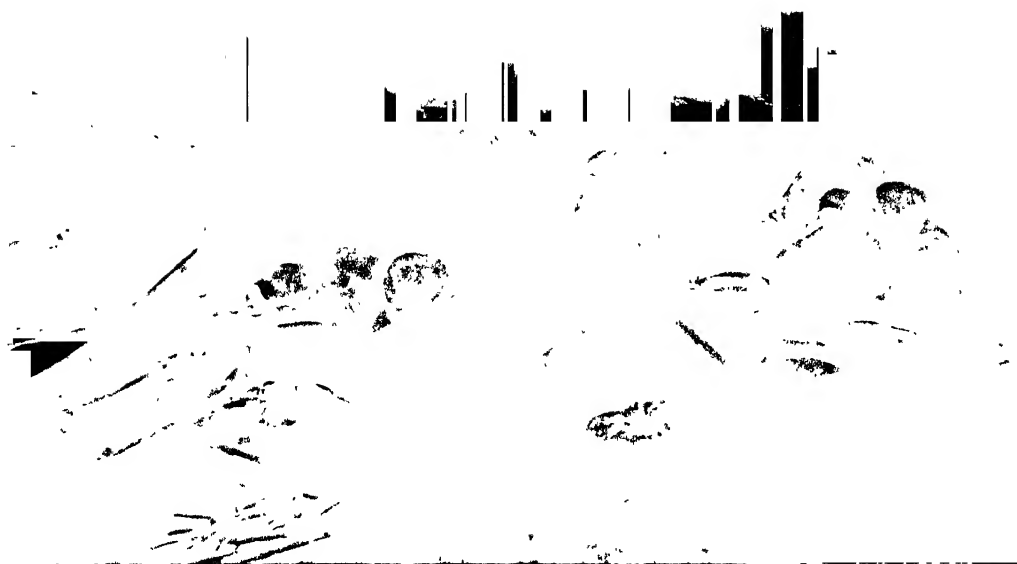
Along with the other branches of agriculture cattle-breeding also steadily improved.

There was considerably more cattle and hogs in 1937 than there had been in 1913. In absolute numbers the cattle of all types in the U.S.S.R., as a result of the second Five-Year Plan, occupied one of the leading places in the world. The number of cattle continued to increase during the third Five-Year Plan period as well, serious attention being devoted simultaneously to improving the quality of the breed. An extensive network of pedigree farms was organized for this purpose and excellent results were obtained. On the eve of the Second World War the collective farms had more than 600,000 cattle-breeding sections.

Thus, the transition to large-scale, socialist agriculture enabled the country to successfully solve the grain problem and secure sufficient cotton and other industrial crops. A stable raw-material base had been set up for the rapidly growing industry.

By the beginning of the Second World War the collective farmers had the free and perpetual use of 488,000,000 hectares of land as

The Ovchinnikov family amidst the
charred ruins of their native village
of Kresti, Orel region, 1942



NAWAT'SAR JUNG SARADUR
A NEW HOUSE BUILT FOR TKACHUK, A WAR VETERAN, MEMBER OF THE MOLOTOV COLLECTIVE FARM, KHOSHEVATOYE
VILLAGE, ODESSA REGION, 1946



against the 134,000,000 hectares tilled by the poor and middle peasants of old Russia.

Numerous highly trained workers, including industrial workers—tractor and combine operators, machinists—never known to the village of individual holdings, now appeared in the collective-farm countryside. By 1940 there were millions of highly trained workers in the villages, including 300,000 agronomists, land-surveyors, zootechnicians, veterinary surgeons, surgeon's assistants, more than 800,000 leaders of tractor, field and stock-breeding brigades, nearly a million tractor and combine operators more than 600,000 managers of stock-breeding farms, etc.

The productivity of agricultural labour on collective farms, as compared with that on individual farms, increased threefold on the average, while on advanced farms it increased fivefold and over.

From 1933 to 1937 the money income of collective farms rose from 5,700,000,000 rubles to 14,200,000,000 rubles a year, while that of the members of the collective farms increased 4.5 times between 1934 and 1937. The collective farms grew annually richer. The government helped all collective farmers to acquire their own cows. Along with the increased production of marketable grain the collective-farm peasantry grew increasingly prosperous.

During the Great Patriotic War Soviet agriculture experienced enormous difficulties. By autumn 1942 the enemy had succeeded in temporarily seizing a number of the most important agricultural regions of the country: the Ukraine, the Crimea, the Don, the Kuban, Byelorussia, the Baltic territories and some central regions.

In these extreme straits the advantages of the collective-farm system became clearly apparent. The high marketability of collective-farm production, the unselfish, heroic labour of the collective-farm men and women, who displayed a profound understanding of national interests, made it possible to supply unremittingly the Soviet Army with food and the industry with raw materials.

It is difficult to conceive the damage caused to the agriculture of the Soviet Union by the German invaders. According to the figures of the Extraordinary State Commission, the damage inflicted on the collective farms alone runs into 181,000,000,000 rubles. This sum does not include damage to machine and tractor stations, state farms, and other agricultural enterprises.

In the machine and tractor stations and on the state and collective farms the Germans wrecked or seized and shipped off to Germany 137,000 tractors 49,000 combines, nearly 4,000,000 ploughs and harrows, 265,000 sowing and planting machines, 885,000 harvesting and sorting machines.

Colossal damage was inflicted by the invaders on state and co-operative stock-breeding farms. The Germans destroyed or drove away to Germany 1,500,000 horses, 9,000,000 head of cattle, 12,000,000 hogs and 13,000,000 sheep and goats.

The post-war Five-Year Plan for 1946-50 aims not only at recuperation from the wounds of the war, but also at insuring the further

development of agriculture and stock-breeding in order to exceed the pre-war level of agricultural production in the U.S.S.R. as a whole.

The post-war Five-Year Plan reflects the new needs of the socialist economy of the Soviet Union. The countryside will acquire no less than 325,000 new tractors which will raise the level of mechanised work on collective and state farms. By the end of the Five-Year Plan period 90 per cent of all such work as ploughing, including fallow and fall-ploughing, will be done by machinery. No less than 70 per cent of planting vernal and winter crops will also be mechanized. In combination with agricultural technique the machinery will raise crop yields and increase the productivity and marketability of the country's agriculture. The volume of agricultural production will be considerably increased. If gross agricultural production in 1932 (end of the first Five-Year Plan period) is taken as 100, the level of 1937 (the end of the second Five-Year Plan) would be 153, that of 1940 (the third Five-Year Plan)—177, while that of 1950, i.e., the last year under the post-war Five-Year Plan, will be 225.

The agriculture of the Soviet Union knows no crises. The Soviet village does not have to reduce its acreage under crop or otherwise artificially curtail the output of agricultural produce. The collective farmers are not menaced with the tragedy of the American farmers portrayed in Steinbeck's famous novel *Grapes of Wrath*. Under the new Five-Year Plan the acreage under crop will be expanded and, consequently, more grain will be harvested. By the end of the period the harvest will be increased to 127,000,000 tons, exceeding the level of 1940 by seven per cent. The harvests of sugar beets, unginned cotton, flax-fibre and sunflowers will also be considerably increased.

As to stock-breeding, the Five-Year Plan provides for restoring and exceeding the pre-war numbers of cattle, sheep, goats, hogs and horses. The numbers of cattle on collective farms will grow to 25,900,000 head, i.e., exceed the 1940 level by 29 per cent; the number of sheep and goats will grow to 68,100,000 head, an increase of 62 per cent; hogs, 11,100,000 head, or 35 per cent in excess of the 1940 level.

The peoples of the Soviet Union suffered enormous privations and made great sacrifices in order to win the war. Improving the material and cultural standards of the people is one of the most important tasks under the Five-Year Plan. The Five-Year Plan for the development of agriculture is a program for a large increase of the output, which will contribute no little to achieve this aim of rapid social advancement. Fulfilment of the Five-Year Plan will give the country an abundance of foodstuffs, which will make it possible to improve the food supply to the cities and raw material supplies for industry, as well as to accumulate the necessary government reserves. The great activity displayed by the Soviet farmers and the enormous political and labour enthusiasm with which the peasantry has tackled the problem of fulfilling the Five-Year Plan show its sterling patriotism and supreme devotion to the collective-farm system.

The unstinted aid and attention given the collective farms by the Bolshevik Party and Soviet Government inspire millions of collective-farm men and women to struggle for the further consolidation of the collective-farm system, for the prosperity of Socialist agriculture.



ALEXANDRA LYUSKOVA



ANNA YUTKINA



AGRIPPINA PARMUZINA

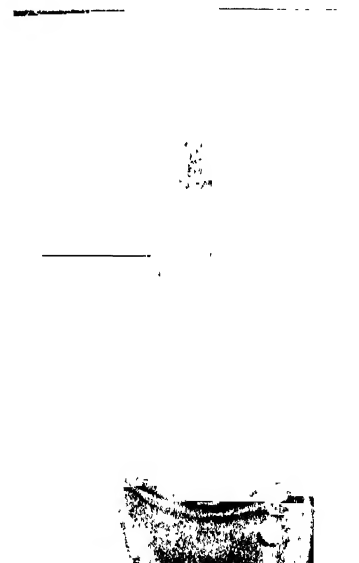
STAKHANOVITES OF AGRICULTURE



MIKHAIL YEFREMOV



EVDOKIA LEBEDEVA



MARK OZYORNY

FARMERS-INNOVATORS

THE SOVIET SYSTEM and collective farming allow the farmers wide scope for applying their capabilities. Throughout the country farmers are making notable contributions

* * *

MIKHAIL YEFREMOV. A member of the Iskra collective farm in Beloglazovo district, Altai Territory (Siberia), Mikhail Yefremov was first to apply in practice new methods of growing spring wheat. In 1936 his experiments on a plot of four hectares resulted in a yield of 6.1 tons of grain per hectare. This was the richest harvest ever obtained in Siberia and it set an all-Union record. Many farmers started to apply Yefremov's methods, and these people are called Yefremovites, just as those who are following in the footsteps of the celebrated miner Stakhanov are called Stakhanovites. The new system of cultivating the land has been christened the "Yefremov farming method."

Yefremov has pupils, both men and women, all over the country. A year after he had raised his record harvest, thousands of peasants in Altai Territory were already practising the

* * *

ALEXANDRA LYUSKOVA. A worker in the hog-breeding section of the Budyonnovets collective farm in Mezhdurechensky district, Vologda region, Alexandra Lyuskova, during the past 14 years, has raised more than 5,000 hogs and delivered tens of tons of high-grade meat to the state. Lyuskova has shipped hundreds of thoroughbred sucklings to state and collective farms to improve their stock. For a period of six years there has not been a single death among the sucklings in her charge. In 1946 Lyuskova decided to obtain no less than four

* * *

ANNA YUTKINA. Brigade leader at the Krasny Perekop collective farm in Mariinsk district, Kemerovo region (Siberia), Anna Yutkina is famous for her rich potato harvests. In 1942 she established a world record by raising 121.7 tons of potatoes per hectare. Anna Yutkina was awarded a Stalin Prize

* * *

AGRIPPINA PARMUZINA. The growing industry of the Soviet Union requires a great amount of rubber, and many collective farms are raising rubber-bearing plants in increasing quantities. The most important rubber-bearing plant in the U.S.S.R. is kok-saghyz, a comparatively new crop with which the collective farms have made great progress. Agrippina Parmuzina is outstanding in this field, and her fame has spread far beyond the boundaries of Belopolye district, Sumy region (the Ukraine). In 1939 her brigade raised an average of 7.2 tons of kok-saghyz roots per hectare, and in 1940, 7.5 tons. In

* * *

MARK OZYORNY. A member of the Chervony Partisan collective farm in Verkhne-Dnieprovsk district, Dniepropetrovsk region, Mark Ozyorny is known throughout the Ukraine for his rich maize harvests. For three years in succession he raised no less than 10 tons of maize per hectare. In 1946 his brigade of 14 young men and women enthusiastically decided to increase the fame of their collective farm. Their goal was 15 tons per hectare—an unprecedented crop. During the winter they pored over farming manuals, collected agrotechnical data

* * *

EVDOKIA LEBEDEVA. A brigade leader at the Combine collective farm in Stalinogorsk district, Moscow region, Evdokia Lebedeva has invented a new method for raising record cabbage harvests on the poor soil of Moscow region. In 1944 and 1945 Lebedeva's brigade set a world record by harvesting approximately 200 tons of cabbage per hectare.

to agronomy and zootechny. The following is a short sketch of the achievements of six members of the army of innovators in the Soviet villages.

"Yefremov farming method." The richest harvest that year was obtained by Ivan Chumanov, brigade leader at the Molodaya Gvardia collective farm in Beloglazovo district. Chumanov's fields yielded 8.6 tons per hectare. Before the war many leading collective farms in the Soviet Union increased crop yields three- and fourfold by using the Yefremov method.

The war unfortunately hindered the further spread of this method. Today the Yefremovites are continuing where they had left off, with results that speak for themselves. In the autumn of 1946 hundreds of Yefremovites raised five tons of grain and more per hectare in various regions of Siberia, in the Urals, and in the Don and Kuban areas. And today as well this army of innovators is led by the Siberian farmer Mikhail Yefremov, deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R.

tons of meat from the sow Yunki. She was more than successful. Yunki bore 47 sucklings in three deliveries. Their aggregate weight by the end of August was 4.45 tons. This was Lyuskova's eleventh record. In January 1946 the government awarded a Stalin Prize to Alexandra Lyuskova and her assistants Lidia Korotkova and Anna Anosova.

In February of the same year Lyuskova was elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

in 1943. In 1946 she established a new world record by raising 131.7 tons on an experimental plot of one hectare. She attributes her success to improved methods of ploughing, planting and cultivation.

the first year after the liberation of the Ukraine from the German fascist invaders, Parmuzina raised a bumper harvest of 10 tons per hectare. In 1946 her brigade gathered an average of 11.5 tons of roots and 250 kg. of seed from each hectare—the richest kok-saghyz harvest to be gathered in the country in recent years. Agrippina Parmuzina has been decorated with the Order of the Red Banner of Labour and awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labour by Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. in 1947.

and laid in a store of fertilizer. In the autumn of 1946 the results surpassed all expectations. Ozyorny and his young assistants gathered 15.8 tons per hectare. It is significant that this bumper crop was raised during a dry summer. The fathers and grandfathers of these young farmers had never heard of such a harvest; their crops were 15 to 20 times smaller. In 1946 the government awarded Mark Ozyorny a Stalin Prize and in March 1947 the title of Hero of Socialist Labour.

The government has awarded Evdokia Lebedeva a Stalin Prize for inventing new farming methods and for establishing a world record in the raising of cabbage.

Here we have briefly described the achievements of six farmers-innovators. In the Soviet Union today there are hundreds and thousands like them who are continuously improving agricultural methods.

VAGINAK SHAUMYAN
Director of the Karavayevo state farm

STANISLAV STEIMAN
Chief Zootechnician of the Karavayevo state farm, Stalin Prize
winner and deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

milking season



T. SMIRNOVA
Breeder of calves at the Karavayevo state farm. She has
been decorated with the Order of the Red Banner of Labour
for outstanding work

GRIGORI ORJONIKIDZE

(1886-1937)

GRIGORI KONSTANTINOVICH ORJONIKIDZE was a disciple and close associate of Lenin and Stalin, and an eminent leader of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks) and of the Soviet state.

Orjonikidze was born on October 28, 1886, in Georgia. His childhood was harsh and dreary, and sombered by the loss of his parents. Still in his early teens he joined the revolutionary movement, and at the age of fifteen already took an active part in a social-democratic circle at the school for qualified medical assistants in Tiflis which he was then attending. He became a member of the Bolshevik Party in 1903 and remained a professional revolutionary for the rest of his life. In 1905 he was very active in the revolution in Transcaucasia. In 1906, after his first arrest, he eluded the toils of the tsarist police and fled abroad, but returned to Russia in 1907 to work in the Baku organization of the Bolsheviks. In November of that year he was arrested again and in the spring of the next year was sentenced to permanent exile in Siberia, from which he escaped, however, in 1909. Next year he went to Paris to see Lenin and attended the Party school that Lenin had founded in Longjumeau, near Paris. Upon Lenin's request he acted as one of the organizers of the Prague Conference of the Bolsheviks (1912), by which he was elected to the Central Committee of the Party. He then led the rigorous and dangerous life of an underground proletarian revolutionist, subject to cruel persecution on the part of the tsarist regime. His steadfastness of purpose and revolutionary enthusiasm was strikingly depicted by V. Molotov in a speech delivered in his memory:

"His was not an easy life. Like the true proletarian revolutionist that he was, with a fighting record of a decade and a half in the cause of Communism under the hard conditions that prevailed in the days of the autocratic tsarist regime, he marched unflinchingly onward under a virtual hail of persecutions. A good half of this part of his life he had to spend in distant exile, in prison and in convict gangs. And all these trials and tribulations of the revolutionary struggle that cost him so much strength he met with head upraised, with unshakable faith in the victory of the working people under the banner of Bolshevism."

The revolution of February 1917 found Orjonikidze exiled to distant Yakutia, from where he soon arrived in Petrograd. There he took an active part in the preparations for and the accomplishment of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

During the Civil War (1918-20) Orjonikidze proved himself a talented military organizer and commander. He took a leading part in carrying out Stalin's plan of defeating General Denikin's counter-revolutionary troops in 1919, and afterwards headed the struggle for the liberation of the peoples of

the Northern Caucasus. Orjonikidze was largely instrumental in freeing Azerbaijan, Georgia and Armenia from the foreign interventionists and internal counter-revolutionists.

When the Civil War was over Orjonikidze took charge of the Transcaucasian Party organization and remained at this post from 1921 to 1926. He displayed exceptional skill and aptitude in his firm and consistent application in practice of the national policy worked out by Lenin and Stalin, which put an end to the tsarist-fomented strife between the nationalities inhabiting Transcaucasia.

In the years 1926-30, while holding the post of People's Commissar of the Workers' and Peasants' Inspection of the U.S.S.R., he achieved important results in the simplification and rationalization of the state apparatus. He succeeded in disclosing the existence of vast reserves in the national economy, which facilitated the realization of Stalin's plan for the socialist industrialization of the country.

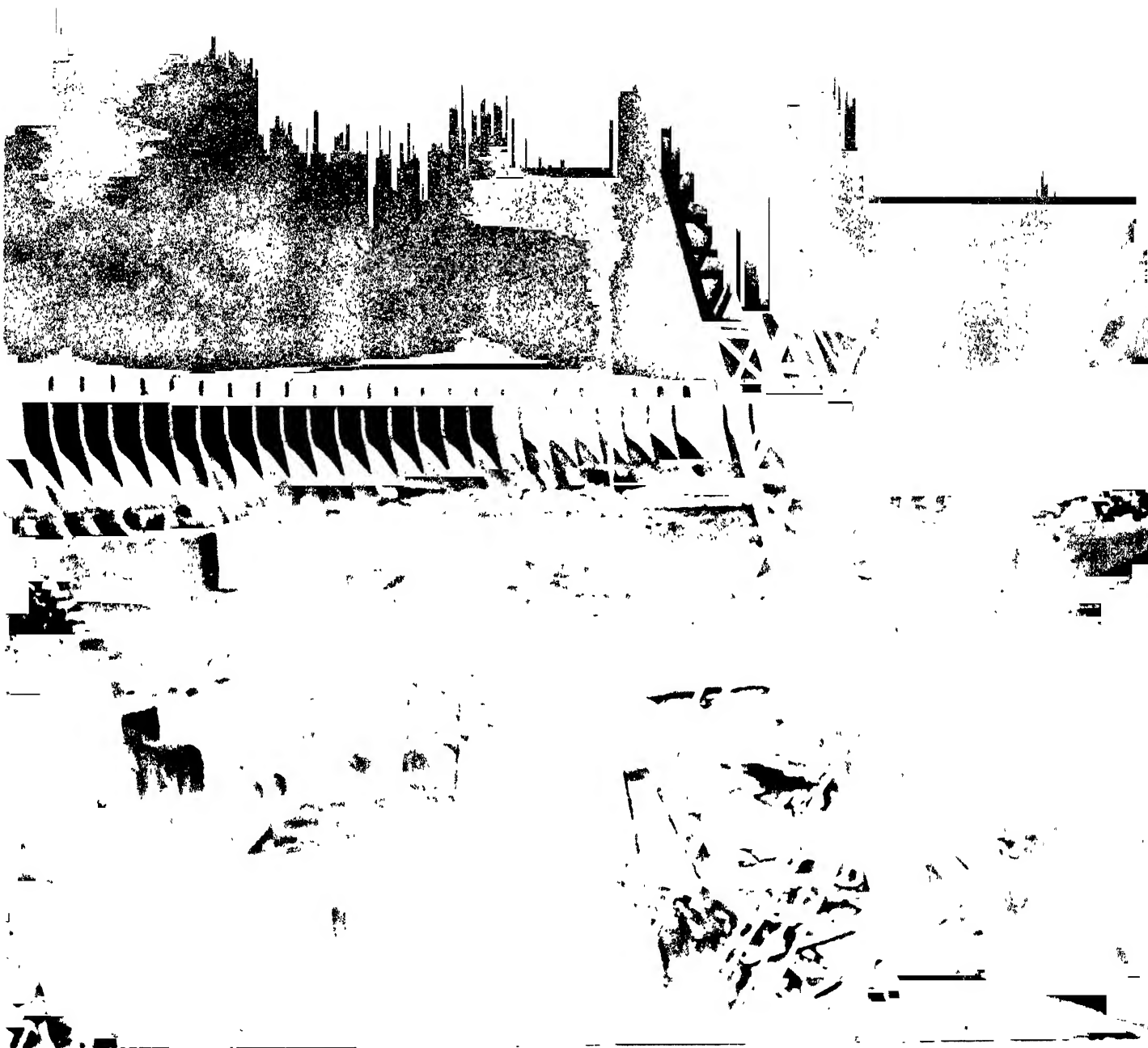
In 1930 he was appointed Chairman of the Supreme Council of National Economy of the U.S.S.R., and, after the latter was reorganized, he became People's Commissar of Heavy Industry. Here his exceptional executive abilities unfolded in full measure.

His name is inseparably linked up with the foundation of the Soviet Union's powerful metallurgical industry, and the establishment of a second metallurgical base in the East, which proved of such decisive assistance to the front during the war.

He was called a commander of industry. He used to make regular visits to factories, shops and new plants, he was personally acquainted with many of the people in charge of enterprises, and helped them grow and develop. He trained a big industrial army of workers, foremen, shop superintendents and factory directors, and organized the workers for the struggle to master the technique of production. The training of scientific personnel took much of his attention. He saw to it that research work was properly organized and that Soviet industry made use of all scientific achievements. He was an ardent supporter of the Stakhanov movement, which became a powerful factor for the development and increase of the country's productive forces.

Under the leadership of Orjonikidze, Soviet heavy industry, to which he had given all his strength and great organizational talent, fulfilled the first and second Five-Year Plans ahead of schedule.

Orjonikidze exhausted his energies at the post assigned to him. He died on February 18, 1937, having devoted all his life, so full of courage and brilliant ideas, to the struggle for the happiness of the peoples of the Soviet republics.



**RESTORATION WORK ON THE LENIN DNEPER HYDROELECTRIC POWER STATION (DNEPROGES)
IN PROGRESS. JULY 1946**

Dnieproges has already begun to produce current. Its power output is to be increased by 90,000 kilowatts over the pre-war level, bringing its 1950 output up to 648,000 kilowatts



ELECTRIFICATION OF THE U.S.S.R.

THE ELECTRIC POWER system of the U.S.S.R. has been created almost in its entirety during the years of Soviet rule. The State Commission for the Electrification of Russia, acting on the instructions of Lenin and in close collaboration with Stalin, in 1920 drew up a plan for the socialist reconstruction of the national economy on the basis of the electrification of the country. This plan envisaged the building of a network of big regional power stations. As recently as in 1928, the U.S.S.R. ranked tenth in the world for electric power output, but by 1938, as a result of the successful fulfilment of the state electrification plan and the Stalin Five-Year Plans, the U.S.S.R. moved to third place in the world and second place in Europe.

The rapid growth of power output can be gauged by the following figures: in 1913 the total power output in Russia was 1,098,000 kilowatts, in 1938 it was 8,117,000 kilowatts.

Within a short time the Soviet country was covered by a network of electric power systems with such first-class stations as the Stalinogorsk, Zuyev, Dubrovsk, Dnieprodzerzhinsk, Gorky, Kashira, Shatura, Central Ural, Baku and others. The building of the first hydroelectric power station on the Volkhov River was followed by the construction of the Lenin Hydroelectric Power Station on the Dnieper, the pride of the Soviet people. In 1940, the production of electric power was 25 times greater than the 1913 level and the capacity of the power stations increased 10 times over.

The electrification of the country made possible the rapid conversion of Soviet national economy to a war footing during the Great Patriotic War. The big power stations that had been built up in the East secured for the war industry an adequate supply of electric power. During the war the production of electric power in the eastern regions of the Soviet Union almost doubled and the capacity of the power stations was increased 1.8 times. From the beginning of the war to 1946, 24 regional power stations, including 12 using water power, were built and opened. Despite the huge losses inflicted by the German fascist invaders on Soviet power economy, by the beginning of 1946 the capacity of all the power stations in the U.S.S.R. was brought up to 10,700,000 kilowatts, i.e., 95 per cent of the January 1, 1941 level. The pre-war electric power production in the U.S.S.R. was reached in 1946.

The Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy of the U.S.S.R. in 1946-50 includes a vast program for the further electrification of the country.

The chief aim in this field is rapid reconstruction and the building of new big, medium and small power stations so that power output should grow faster than the rate of reconstruction and development in other branches of the national economy. Within the next five years stations with a capacity of 1,800,000 kilowatts to 2,500,000 kilowatts will be added to the electric system of the Soviet Union every year. The scope of this program can be judged by the sole fact

that in five years the planned increase in power capacity is intended to reach 11,700,000 kilowatts, and thus surpass all that had been done in this field before the war and since the setting up of the Soviet state. The power capacity for the country as a whole will be double the 1940 level.

Almost half of the entire program of electric power construction will be carried out in those regions which suffered from the German occupation. The electric power system in other regions will also be further developed, with special attention paid to Siberia and the Far East.

The power capacity in the Urals will be trebled as compared with 1940.

The capacity of the Moscow electric power stations will be increased 80 per cent as compared with the 1940 level, while the capacity of the electric power stations in the Volga regions will be more than doubled.

In 1950 the capacity of the power stations in the Union republics of Transcaucasia and Central Asia will be several times greater than in 1940.

Simultaneous with the building of steam-driven power stations, the new Five-Year Plan provides for the extensive building of hydroelectric power stations. The U.S.S.R. has at its disposal vast reserves of water power estimated at 280,000,000 kilowatts. The plan envisages an output of 3,300,000 kilowatts by the reconstructed and new hydroelectric power stations; this will make a 2.8-fold increase in power output over the 1940 figure.

Six hydroelectric power stations will be reconstructed in the course of the next five years, and this number includes the Dnieper Hydroelectric Power Station whose total power capacity will be increased from 558,000 kilowatts to 648,000 kilowatts. Thirty new hydroelectric power stations will be constructed by that time.

The fulfilment of this gigantic construction program will meet the electrification requirements of industry, railways and cities. A big step forward will be the development of electrification in the collective and state farms and machine and tractor stations.

Many small hydroelectric power stations with a total capacity of 1,000,000 kilowatts will be built on collective farms during the Five-Year Plan period and this will result in an almost twentyfold increase in the output of rural hydroelectric power stations. In regions with no ample water resources it is planned to build small steam and gas-driven power stations working on local fuel.

The fulfilment of the fourth Stalin Five-Year Plan for electrification will ensure a total power capacity of 22,400,000 kilowatts. The output of all the power stations in the U.S.S.R. by 1950 will be 82,000,000,000 kilowatt-hours, i.e., it will surpass the 1940 level by 70 per cent, and will satisfy the growing demand for electric energy by the national economy and population of the U.S.S.R. It will be a valuable contribution towards the realization of Lenin's great idea: "Communism is Soviet power plus the electrification of the entire country."



GENERALISSIMO J. V. STALIN



ARTILLERY SALUTE ON SOVIET ARMY DAY, MOSCOW



SOVIET ARMY DAY

THE SOVIET ARMY, founded by Lenin and Stalin for the struggle against foreign interventionists and invaders who strove to dismember the Soviet country and rob it of its independence, has traversed a glorious path in the 29 years of its existence.

February 23, 1918, the day when detachments of the young Red Army defeated the German invaders near Pskov and Narva, was declared the birthday of the Soviet Army. In 1918-21, in the stubborn struggle against the united forces of foreign invaders and internal counter-revolution, the Soviet Army defended the honour, freedom and independence of its native Soviet Land, defended the right of the peoples of the country to build their life on principles of Socialism.

For a period of two decades the Soviet Army guarded the peaceful and constructive labour of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. During this period a socialist industry and collective-farm agriculture came into being in the Soviet Union, science and culture flourished, and the friendship of the peoples of the Soviet Union was consolidated.

The Soviet government, the Communist Party and Joseph Stalin always saw the danger of a military attack on the peace-loving Soviet Union by imperialist aggressors. While steadfastly pursuing a policy of peace they did all that was necessary to organize forces capable of smashing any aggressor.

In the period of peaceful construction with its intense industrial development the Soviet government made radical changes in the technical equipment of the army and devoted a great deal of attention to the training of officers. The military schools and academies attended by the best sons of the Soviet people—workers, peasants and intelligentsia—produced well-trained and skilled commanders.

The task of building a first-class army with up-to-date materiel, experienced commanders and men with high moral and combat qualities was constantly in the centre of the Soviet government's attention.

Subsequent events showed that the Soviet people were right in anticipating an armed attack from without. In 1938 Japanese invaders crossed the borders of the Soviet Union in the Far East, near Lake Hasan, in an attempt to seize part of Soviet territory. The Japanese suffered a crushing defeat at the hands of the Soviet Army. However, in 1939 the Japanese imperialists made another attempt to execute their plans of conquest by launching an attack through the territory of the Mongolian People's Republic. The Soviet Army responded by inflicting a crushing defeat on crack units of the Japanese army.

At the outbreak of the Second World War, when fascist Germany attacked Poland, the Soviet Army extended its protection to the fraternal peoples of Western Ukraine and Western Byelorussia and liberated them from age-old slavery.

The armed forces of the Soviet Union displayed unusual skill, heroism and valour in the war with Finland (1939-40), forced on the Soviet Union by the aggressive forces of Finnish reaction.

The battles against the Japanese invaders and Finnish Whiteguards showed that the Soviet Army, born of the Great October Revolution, was a staunch defender of its Socialist country. Its power consisted primarily in the fact that it had been trained by the Soviet people and the Bolshevik Party, that it had been educated in the spirit of supreme devotion to the great ideas of Socialism. This constitutes its power, this is the source of the mass heroism of the Soviet soldiers and officers.

The Soviet Army and the Soviet people stood the hardest test during the Great Patriotic War. On June 22, 1941, Hitler Germany treacherously attacked the Soviet Union, grossly and basely violating the non-aggression pact.

At the call of Joseph Stalin the Soviet Army and all Soviet people bravely rose to the defence of their country, the defence of the interests of the freedom-loving peoples of the world. The Soviet Union and its valorous troops proved to be the force

that smashed the Hitler war machine and disrupted the monstrous fascist plan for world conquest.

As early as the first months of the war the Soviet troops dispelled the myth of the "invincibility" of Hitler's army. In the winter of 1941-42 they struck powerful blows at the Hitlerites near Rostov-on-Don and Tikhvin. In the historical battle near Moscow the Soviet troops smashed the principal shock force of the Germans, drove its remnants from the capital and won the first general battle of the Second World War.

Taking advantage of the absence of the second front, the Germans undertook another big offensive in the summer of 1942. Their attack on Stalingrad was aimed at severing Moscow from the richest economic districts of the country, surrounding and capturing the capital of the Soviet Union. Led by Joseph Stalin, the Soviet Army again skilfully foiled the enemy's blow and routed his armoured hordes.

After Stalingrad the Germans could not recover. The Soviet Army took the strategic initiative into its hands and never relinquished it till the end of the war.

As a result of skilfully conducted large-scale offensive operations the Soviet Army cleared the territory of the U.S.S.R. from the German invaders, put out of action Germany's vassals—Rumania, Bulgaria, Finland and Hungary, and helped the allied powers—Yugoslavia, Poland and Czechoslovakia—in their liberation from fascist slavery.

With the development of the successful offensive of the Allies in the West, fascist Germany found herself gripped in a vise between the two fronts.

The Berlin operations of the Soviet Army, which brought the war with Hitler Germany to a victorious end, proved an unsurpassed model of military science.

In the summer of 1945 the U.S.S.R., true to its treaty of alliance, declared war on imperialist Japan. Having secured rich combat experience in mobile warfare, the Soviet troops waged brilliant offensive operations in Manchuria, South Sakhalin, North Korea and on the Kuril Islands. Routing the million-strong Kwantung army of the Japanese, the Soviet Army accelerated the end of the Second World War.

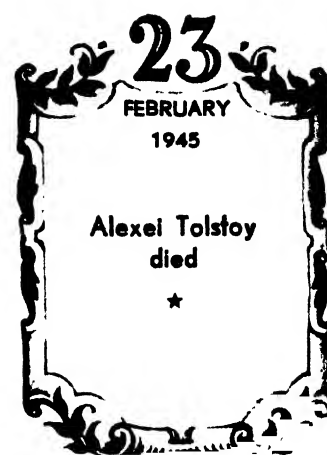
The military skill of the Soviet Army rests on Soviet military science. The foundations of this science were laid by the leaders of the Great October Socialist Revolution, Vladimir Lenin and Joseph Stalin.

Generalissimo of the Soviet Union Joseph Stalin has developed and deepened Soviet military science and passed it on to the marshals and generals, officers and men of the Soviet Army. During the hard years of the war he confidently led the Soviet Army and the whole of the Soviet people to victory.

The Soviet state and its army won a victory of world historical importance over the enemy because the Soviet Army was led by the great military leader Joseph Stalin, because the great Russian people with its clear mind, stalwart character and patience constituted the mainspring of the Soviet state and its army, because the Communist combat men, the backbone of the multi-national Soviet Army led it from victory to victory, because the army was and is being supported by the whole of the Soviet people.

The peoples of the Soviet Union have returned to peaceful construction and have already achieved substantial successes in the fulfilment of the post-war Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy of the country. The Soviet Army, having fulfilled its historical mission, has emerged from the war stronger than ever.

Studying and mastering the experience of the Second World War, the Soviet Army knows that it has been organized not for the conquest of foreign lands but for the defence of the borders of the U.S.S.R. The Soviet Army is vigilantly guarding the security of the great Soviet Union. It has been and remains the army of the defence of peace and friendship among the peoples of all countries.



ALEXEI TOLSTOY

ALEXEI TOLSTOY

(1883-1945)

ALEXEI NIKOLAYEVICH TOLSTOY was brought up in the family of his stepfather, Alexei Rostrum, a financially ruined landed proprietor. His mother, whose maiden name was Turgeneva, was an authoress.

Alexei Tolstoy graduated from high school and subsequently from the St. Petersburg Technological Institute. He began to write when he was sixteen years old, and made his debut in print with poems. A collection of his first book of poems, *Lyrics*, appeared in 1907, and on the author's own avowal it was a "naive, poorly done book," composed entirely of imitations of decadent verse.

Tolstoy's first work in prose, *Stories of Sorochi*, appeared in 1910. In it the writer tried to convey his first impressions of nature. However, success in this domain came to him only many years later, with his novel *Nikita's Childhood*.

As a result of dogged work and gradual literary attainment Tolstoy began to develop into a continuer of the realistic tradition of Russian literature of the 19th century. The cycle of tales *Under the Old Lime Trees*, *The Cranks* (1910) and the novel *The Lame Gentleman* (1912) are among his more important pre-revolutionary productions. They bring into prominence one of the strong points of the writer—his splendid style, a vivacity of language rising to the lofty heights of the Russian classics. The heroes of these stories (*Cockerel*, *Mishuka Nalimov*, *Dreamer*, *Arkhip*) are people without a future. At the time, the author himself was not sure as to whom the future might belong, but he created life-like pictures of cranks gone to pot, petty tyrants come to grief and *dolce far niente* devotees. Baring with realistic pen the stagnant, banal life of landlord Russia, Alexei Tolstoy destroyed the compassionate and poetical legend of the moribund noblemen's nests created by the literature of that time.

Alexei Tolstoy countered the eroticism and mysticism of the *decadents* by his realistic pen portraits of the denizens inhabiting the twilight zone of the Russian countryside, the zone in which so many miserable and ludicrous people whose lives had been maimed (a district doctor, a school-teacher, an actress, etc.), tried to escape from oppressive inactivity and, finally, found a way out in the "happiness of true love." The author called this initial stage of his literary career a "period of reminiscences."

Came imperialist war and revolution. The symbolists, in whose circles Tolstoy moved at that time, could not understand the course of contemporary life. Their reaction-tinted, moribund art ceased to interest the author.

A new type of hero, little known to the author, began to make his way into pre-revolutionary life and literature, and Alexei Tolstoy, his curiosity aroused, as it were, attentively scrutinized the newcomer.

"I always worked hard," Tolstoy said with reference to this span of years, "and now I worked harder still, but the results were lamentable: I did not see the true life of the country and the people." A short-lived crisis supervened the writer's literary activity.

During the war of 1914-18 Alexei Tolstoy acted as war correspondent for *Russkiye Vedomosti*. Here, at the front, he found his heroes: rank-and-file Russian officers and soldiers who gave their strength, their very lives, in the discharge of their military duty.

Accumulated experience of life had inculcated in his heart a profound love for the Russian people, and he became more exacting of himself as a writer. In progressive stages his consuming interest in the destiny of Russia and his endeavour to shed true light upon the character of the Russian people became the outstanding feature of the products of his artistic pen.

Tolstoy did not accept the October Revolution at once, and this caused him to leave Russia. This talented and honest writer, however, soon realized the moral and political squalor

of life in emigration, and was seized with hatred for the counter-revolutionaries, these "people without a country," as they styled themselves in self-commiseration. His self-imposed exile abroad (1918-23) and the emigrants figure prominently in a series of stories entitled *Across a Russian Field*, and in the following tales and novels: *Manuscript Found Under a Bed*, *Ibicus* or *the Adventures of Nevzorov*, and *Black Gold*. His native land forms Tolstoy's main theme. He goes about his problem in his own way, and describes his quest most circumstantially in the trilogy *Road to Calvary*—a work historical in theme and biographical in essence. In it Tolstoy relates the joys and sorrows of an entire generation which the October Revolution has led through a social and spiritual transformation.

In their totality, his works, both big and small, give a clear picture of Russian life on the dividing lines of two epochs. In these works the author assigned first place to the moral regeneration of man on coming in contact with people possessed of a higher sense of social responsibility. This is symptomatic of his ingrained optimism, conjoined with sterling artistry irradiant with life. Gradually Tolstoy's outlook and work ascend to the lofty plane of genuine socialist patriotism, which permeates the very best of his creations.

Alexei Tolstoy appealed to history in his efforts to fathom the soul of his people. The turning points of history which for a long time determined the life of the Russian people—the epochs of Ivan IV, Peter I, the Revolution of 1917 and the Civil War and, finally, the Great Patriotic War—especially attracted the author.

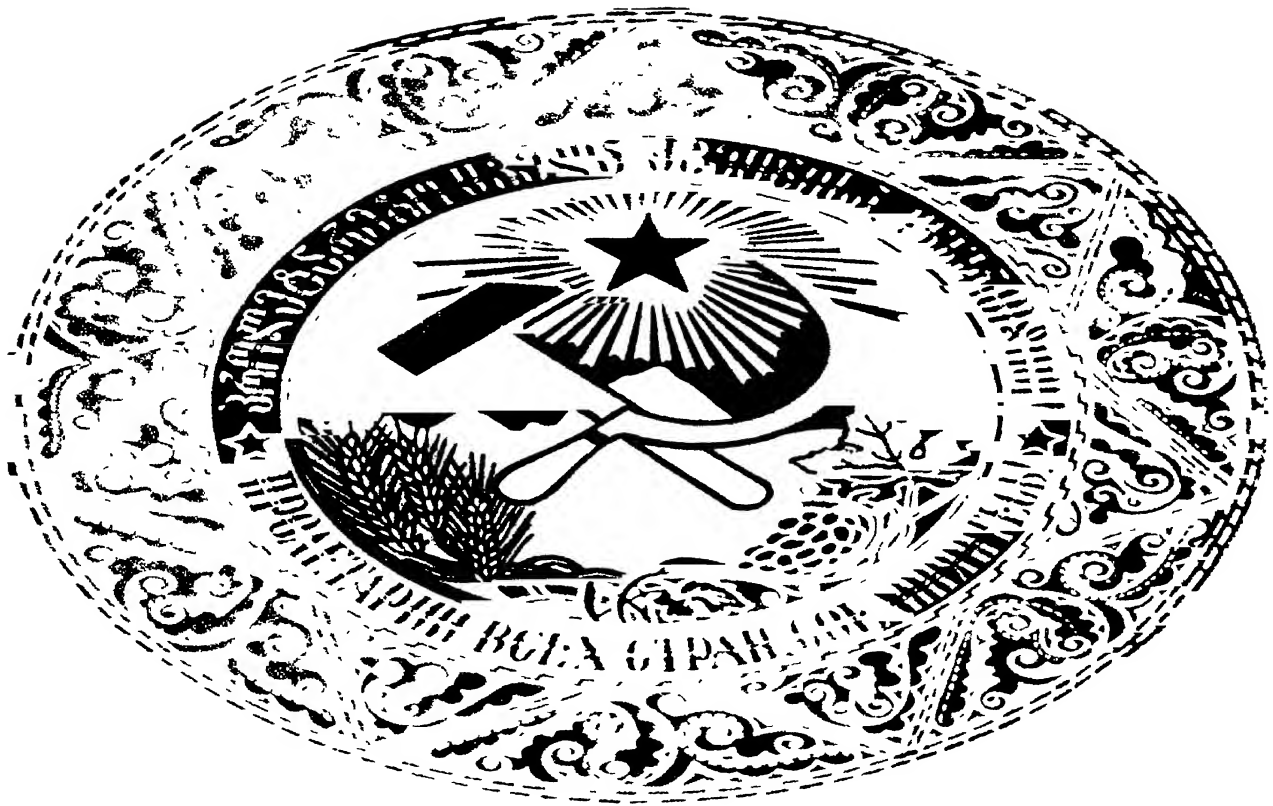
To Alexei Tolstoy history, in addition to an artistic theme, was also a means of studying life. The novel *Peter I* was preceded by various works on this theme (*Peter's Day*, *On the Rack*) which depict the formative stages of the author's conception of history. Tolstoy published the first part of the novel in 1929, the second in 1934, working on the third part until the day of his death, yet leaving it unfinished.

The novel is dynamic. It shows the epoch and Peter himself, a true national hero of Russia and creator of the Russian state, in all their magnificence and multiplicity, in all their contradictions. The author describes the transformation of Russia into a mighty power. The novel is imbued with pride for Russia and faith in the Russian people. This profoundly realistic work has greatly influenced Soviet writers working in the field of history.

During the Great Patriotic War Alexei Tolstoy wrote two plays: *Eagle and His Mate* and *Difficult Years*, which are included in the book *Ivan Grozny*. This book portrays Tsar Ivan IV, a progressive statesman who exerted great effort to create a unified national Russian state from the fragmented feudal appanages.

Alexei Tolstoy is a prominent figure in the field of culture and on the public scene. At the International Congress of Writers which was held in Paris in 1935, he delivered an address entitled "The Freedom of Creative Activity," and in 1937 at the London Congress of Culture he spoke on the significance of socialist construction in the U.S.S.R. and on the Soviet Constitution. This public-spirited Soviet citizen became especially active during the struggle against fascism, and during the recent war proved himself a great patriot and publicist. His journalism was highly artistic, and largely dedicated, as were his other works, to the faithful picturization of the life of the people. There is a sublime majesty about Tolstoy's journalistic writings—the vast historical panoramas he presents and the generalizations he draws from them. Collections of his articles *Native Land* and others have had numerous printings.

Alexei Tolstoy was a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and a member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. His *Peter I* (1940), *Road to Calvary* (1943), and the play *Ivan Grozny* (1946) were awarded Stalin Prizes.



***The Arms
of the Georgian Soviet Socialist
Republic***

GEORGIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE GEORGIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC, situated in the central and western part of Transcaucasia, occupies 76,200 square kilometres and has a population of 3,500,000. Two-thirds of the inhabitants are Georgians, the rest Abkhazians, Adjarians, Ossetians, Russians and Armenians. In the south the republic borders on Turkey.

Georgia's capital, Tbilisi, is an industrial and cultural centre with a population of 519,200. It was founded about 1,500 years ago, which makes it the oldest city in the U.S.S.R.

Not far from Tbilisi lies Gori, J. V. Stalin's native town. Turned into a museum, the little one-storey house in which he was born is now surrounded with a thin layer of marble and glass to protect it from inclement weather. Everything in the house is as it was in Stalin's childhood.

The Georgian S.S.R. is distinguished for the variety and abundance of its natural wealth and is justly considered one of the most beautiful spots in the world.

Before the establishment of Soviet power in Georgia its natural resources were hardly tapped. Industry was poorly developed, agriculture was just dragging along. There was one metal plough to fifteen peasant households, and only one peasant out of three had a wooden plough.

After the victory in Russia of the Great October Socialist Revolution, the bourgeois nationalists seized power in Georgia with the aid of the Whiteguards and foreign interventionists.

On February 25, 1921, as the result of a victorious rising of Georgia's workers and peasants, the counter-revolutionary bourgeois government was overthrown and Georgia became a Soviet Socialist Republic. Under Soviet rule the country's industry, agriculture and culture were transformed with marvellous speed.

All the old factories and mills were thoroughly reconstructed and considerably enlarged. Over 800 new factories, mills and mines were built and equipped with modern machinery and installations. The coal, manganese, machine-building, oil, chemical, food, textile and other branches of industry were greatly expanded. Pre-revolutionary Georgia did not have a single hydroelectric power station. Today it has five such stations of large dimensions and about 500 small ones.

Socialist industrialization assured the rapid growth of industrial output in the country. Thus, in 1941 the output of large-scale industry was more than 26 times that of 1913. Likewise, the production of woollen and silk fabrics, footwear, canned goods, tea and other items of light and food industry multiplied many times over.

During the first Stalin Five-Year Plan period (1928-32) Georgia's peasantry, united in collective farms, whose production rose from year to year. Machine and tractor stations were set up to supply the collective farms with tractors, combines and automobiles. Large state-owned and state-operated agricultural enterprises called state farms were organized. The sowing areas had increased 22 per cent in 1940 in comparison with 1913. A characteristic feature of Georgia's development was the exceptionally rapid extension of the area planted to subtropical and industrial crops, such as tea, citrus fruits, and cotton. Tea plantations grew in aggregate area from 800 hectares, the pre-revolutionary figure, to 51,500 hectares, that is, more than 62-fold, while the area under citrus fruit multiplied more than 50 times over. Crop yields also increased considerably. Thus, for instance, at the present time more than 2,000 kilograms of green tea leaf is harvested on the average per hectare, as against a little over 700 kilograms before the revolution.

The rapid growth of agriculture brought prosperity to the collective farmers. During the eight years preceding the war, gross collective-farm incomes increased more than seven times, money incomes more than nine times. Each collective farm began to receive twice as much grain and five times

as much money as during the first few years after collective farms were organized. Today there are more than 100 collective farms in Georgia with annual incomes in excess of 1,000,000 rubles each.

In the domain of culture, the Georgian people have also marked great progress. Illiteracy has been abolished on the whole and universal elementary education introduced. About 3,000 primary and secondary schools have been built under Soviet rule. Instead of the one institution of higher learning that existed in Georgia before the revolution and was accessible only to the privileged classes, the republic today can boast 22 higher educational establishments whose portals are wide open to all the working people.

In 1941 the Academy of Sciences of the Georgian S.S.R. was founded. It comprises more than 40 research institutes and other scientific establishments. Soviet power has brought about a genuine renaissance of Georgian literature, art and science. The Georgian people have brought forth writers, poets, artists, sculptors, composers and scientists of no mean calibre, whose work is widely known also beyond the country's borders. Before the revolution Georgia had only five theatres compared with the forty theatres today. The guest performances of the Georgian National Opera in Moscow and other Soviet cities fully deserve the success they have achieved.

During the war the Georgians fought valiantly in the ranks of the Soviet Army. The Georgian divisions covered themselves with undying fame. The title of Hero of the Soviet Union was conferred upon more than 100 Georgians for distinguished service at the front while tens of thousands of Georgia's warriors were awarded other decorations.

Under the new Stalin Five-Year Plan (1946-50), 4,120,000,000 rubles will be invested in the national economy of Georgia. This guarantees the further growth of the republic's industrial might.

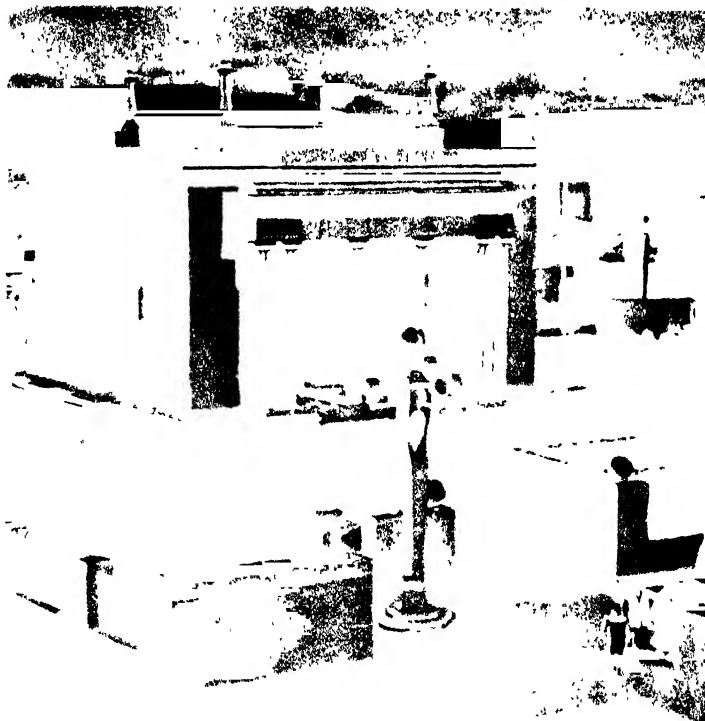
Not far from Tbilisi a metallurgical plant, the first in Transcaucasia, including two blast and six open-hearth furnaces, rolling mills and a blooming mill, is under construction. Its full annual capacity is estimated at 430,000 tons of cast iron, 685,000 tons of steel and over 380,000 tons of rolled metal. An automobile plant designed to produce 15,000 three-and-a-half-ton trucks in 1950 is going up in Kutaisi. Likewise under construction are many other new factories, mills, mines, pits, oil wells and power stations while new railways and highways are being laid. By 1950 coal output in Georgia will have increased almost fourfold as compared with 1940, reaching a total of 2,400,000 tons, while the manganese output will have increased by 600,000 tons, reaching a total of 2,040,000 tons, and the generation of electricity 78 per cent to a total of 1,300,000,000 kwh.

Georgia's agriculture is also scheduled to make great strides during the five-year period. New irrigation systems will be built and the draining of marshes, particularly of the Kolkhida (Colchis) plain, will be continued. This will bring with it a further increase in collective and state-farm sowing areas, while vineyards will acquire 11,000 additional hectares. Also 11,000 additional hectares will be planted to the citrus fruit area, raising the aggregate to 29,000 hectares. Tea plantations will be enlarged by 6,000 hectares to a total of 57,500 hectares.

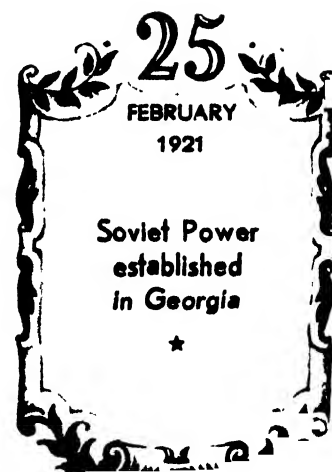
By 1950 the republic's health resorts, visited by patients from all over the Soviet Union and comprising such places as Borzhomi, Tskhaltubo and Zelenny Mys, will have been reconstructed and considerably enlarged.

Fulfilment of the post-war Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy will mean a further enhancement of the republic's economic strength and a considerable improvement in the material and cultural welfare of its population.

GOVERNMENT HOUSE IN TBILISI, CAPITAL OF GEORGIAN S.S.R. RUST'HVELI PROSPECT



CORI, THE BIRTHPLACE
OF JOSEPH STALIN
The house in which
he was born and lived





Bust by V. Topuridze

SHOT'HA RUST'HVELI

VERY LITTLE reliable data on the life of Shot'ha Rust'hveli, the great Georgian poet who lived at the end of the 12th and beginning of the 13th century, has been handed down to us. Rust'hveli was born in Mes'helia, one of the culturally best developed provinces of old Georgia. He was one of the most enlightened men of his time. The poet wrote during the reign of Queen T'hamar, a period of Georgia's cultural development and state prosperity.

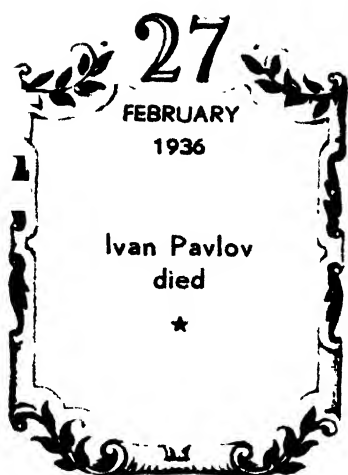
The *Knight in the Tiger's Skin* is the only one of Rust'hveli's poems that has been preserved. His other works, including his poem about Joseph the Magnificent and Queen T'hamar, perished during the Mongol invasion of Georgia.

The strength of its feelings, the profundity of its humanity and the brilliance of its art makes the *Knight in the Tiger's Skin* a poem that ranks amongst the foremost works of world literature. It is a poem of love, loyalty and heroism in which the new humanitarian morals are vividly portrayed.

The story of T'hinat'hin and Avt'handil, and their friend T'riel, the Knight in the Tiger's Skin, is, in Rust'hveli's telling, a hymn of love and friendship.

The poem contains many wise saws, proverbs and sayings that have become part of the speech of the Georgian people. The folklore of Georgia includes many songs devoted to the heroes of the poem.

The *Knight in the Tiger's Skin* has been a constant favourite of the Georgian people for seven and a half centuries. The 750th anniversary of the creation of the poem was a festival observed in 1937 by all the peoples of the multi-national Soviet Union.



**IVAN PAVLOV,
THE GREAT RUSSIAN
SCIENTIST AND
PHYSIOLOGIST**



Sculpture by M. Manizer

“Our country provides great opportunities for scientists. It must be said that science is being generously introduced into the life of our country. Generously without reservations.”

Ivan Pavlov

IVAN PAVLOV

(1849-1936)

THE NAME OF IVAN PETROVICH PAVLOV is dear to all in the Soviet Union. It has become a symbol for unbounded patriotism and passionate service to Soviet science, a symbol of the struggle for the prestige of Soviet science and victory in the sphere of world scientific competition.

As a man he combined gentleness and kindness with short-tempered irascibility and tremendous zeal for the work he loved. Mikhail Neesterov, the renowned Russian artist who painted two portraits of Pavlov, said after his first meeting with the savant: "An astonishingly charming personality. . . . In a few moments I seemed to have known him for years. . . ."

It was a sight to see the passion and even the "ferocity" of that charming and kindly man when the country's science was in danger of falling behind, even if it were only in a sphere of secondary importance. He often told his pupils that they should "fight like lions" for the dignity and success of science.

Although Pavlov lived to the age of 87 and was one of the greatest thinkers of his time, he managed to retain all the early traits of his character. Throughout his long life he was a combination of youthful passion, simplicity and natural ease.

The greatness of Pavlov as a scholar is undisputed the world over. World fame came to him because he introduced his own original synthesis into every branch of physiology in which he worked. Almost every one of his experiments bore the character of an innovation, the stamp of a revolutionary spirit. He never forgot that his scientific achievement was an achievement of Russian thought.

During the last thirty-five years of his life Pavlov's work centred almost exclusively around higher nervous activity (behaviour) and the conditioned reflexes which he developed as a method of scientific investigation. Therefore, when we speak of the scientific legacy inherited from Pavlov we principally have in view the problem of cerebral activity.

The theory of conditioned reflexes gave a material aspect to the whole problem of the brain and the psychic problem, it brought them within the field of experimental investigation. Man, who was proud of his knowledge of nature and of her physical, chemical and even organic manifestations, paled before the endless complexity of phenomena revealed to him when he approached the problem of mental activity. There is no reason to doubt the truth of Pavlov's statement to the effect that the human brain is the most intricate structure in the world. This is why the irresistible and ever increasing torrent of human thought that has developed since the days of Galileo, "shrank back" from this last and seemingly impregnable fortress. Pavlov demonstrated a precise experimental way of reducing this fortress, he showed that the most important laws of mental activity have biological roots.

This gave rise to the insistent necessity of laying bare the history of the origin and development of lower forms of nervous activity. Pavlov raised this problem himself but its elaboration on a wide scale only began after his death. Today there are a number of laboratories that study the first appearance of signs of nervous activity in the animal embryo. By studying the pregnant animal the experimenter probes into the very earliest symptoms of what Pavlov called "congenital activity." What, and to what extent does the animal acquire in a ready-made form during its prenatal period and how much is acquired through experience in later life? This is the problem on which Soviet scientists are now working; its solution will make it possible to get nearer to the biological roots of the laws of higher nervous activity.

The embryo of the animal removed from the womb many days before birth is due is still incapable of performing the functions of adaptation. It still does not breathe, it does not move, but an experienced eye may notice that a slight irritation of the legs with the bristles of a brush and by a pin-prick cause the embryo to make a scarcely perceptible movement. The microscope shows that at this moment individual mature nerve cells appear in the brain and establish very fine communications between themselves. This is a moment of the greatest importance: it is the time when the first nervous reactions of the organ-

ism appear. The study of the animal in the early stages of its development during the first few days after birth shows that this apparatus for nervous reaction gradually becomes more intricate; in some animals, including man, it is capable of adaptive activities long before the "legitimate time" of birth.

The history of higher nervous activity is not confined to its development in the womb of the mother. The animal kingdom has inhabited the world for many millions of years. It is this incalculable period of development on earth that makes it possible for a complete and perfect living organism to develop during the comparatively short period of pregnancy of the mother. Different animals have different forms of adaptive reactions and various degrees of complexity in their higher nervous activity. It is, therefore, necessary to study and compare different types of animals and their higher nervous activity.

Pavlov made a detailed study of the higher nervous activity of his famous chimpanzees, Rose and Raphael, and showed how this comparative study could be made; these, however, were isolated experiments. Today, the comparative study of higher nervous activity is the basic work of many big laboratories; they study the most diverse representatives of the animal kingdom—apes, birds, insects, etc.

Another development of Pavlov's scientific legacy is the investigation of the intricate physiological mechanism of the principal pillar of his whole theory—the conditioned reflex. Figuratively speaking, this line of investigation aims at demonstrating the fine threads and nerve elements which maintain direct contact between the different parts of the brain during higher nervous activity.

This line of investigation strives to give greater depth to the materialist content of Pavlov's theories of the brain. It strives to link up higher nervous activities with the concrete nerve cells of which the brain is composed. This is effected in various ways.

Here is one method of investigation: silver electrodes are introduced into various sections of a dog's brain and are kept there for some considerable time. Reflexes are conditioned in the animal; during the development of the reflexes the electrodes that have "taken root" act as conductors for the tiniest electric currents measurable on modern instruments. As a rule, these currents are generated in the brain cells in the course of their activity. By noting the point of the brain with which the electrodes make contact and the variations in the electric currents which they "draw off," it is possible to decide how the excitation is spread over the nervous system during activity due to conditioned reflexes. This new line of investigation is to a considerable extent an original achievement made by Soviet physiologists since Pavlov's death. Pavlov himself dreamed of investigations of this type which would lead to the compilation of a map showing the radiation of the excitation throughout the central nervous system. Unfortunately he did not live to see his idea of "conditioned contact" in the brain cortex given a more concrete expression.

It will be remembered that Pavlov did a great deal towards applying his achievements in the realm of physiology to practical medicine. His idea of "prolonged sleep" for the treatment of schizophrenia and other nervous and psychic disturbances was very widely used. Pavlov based his theories on the fact that during sleep the brain cells are in a state which protects them from further injury. He called this process "protective inhibition." During the Great Patriotic War Pavlov's idea of "protective inhibition" was extensively used by Soviet physiologists for the explanation and treatment of traumatic shock, incurable pains, various forms of paralysis, etc.

These few notes on the further development of Pavlov's scientific legacy do not by any means exhaust the long list of what has been done since the great scholar's death. It is, however, important to emphasize once again that the Soviet school of physiologists has not remained at the point which Pavlov reached. Very much has been done in many new directions and the ideas expressed by Pavlov during the last years of his life have been further developed and given a more precise form; all this is being done against the background of the general laws of conditioned reflexes formulated by the great physiologist. We have every reason to feel sure that the further development of Pavlov's teachings will help Soviet scientists head the field as far as originality and novelty are concerned.



NADEZHDA KRUPSKAYA

NADEZHDA KRUPSKAYA

(1869-1939)

NADEZHDA KRUPSKAYA was a prominent representative of the old Bolshevik guard, a very close friend and associate of Lenin and Stalin, and a prominent political figure of the Soviet Union.

She was born in 1869 in St. Petersburg. Her father moved in the progressive circles of that time, so that Krupskaya grew up in a revolutionary environment. On graduating from the St. Petersburg *gymnasium* she entered the Higher Courses for Women in 1889, but did not stay there long. In 1890 she joined a students' Marxist circle where she studied the works of Marx and Engels and at the same time herself conducted a Social-Democratic circle consisting of students of technology. For five years, beginning with 1891, she was active in St. Petersburg teaching at the first workers' evening school, carrying on party propaganda and organizational work and distributing revolutionary literature among the workers.

In 1893 Vladimir Ilyich Lenin came to St. Petersburg where he established a revolutionary Social-Democratic organization, the League of Struggle for the Emancipation of the Working Class. Krupskaya joined the new organization and in the course of their common revolutionary work she became acquainted with Lenin. In August 1896 a group of the League members, including Krupskaya, was arrested, and she was sentenced to three years' exile. She was allowed to serve her time in Minusinsk territory, in the village of Shushenskoye, where Lenin lived in banishment at that time. Krupskaya arrived there in May 1898 and ever since then, until Lenin's death, they lived together inseparably, united by their common work and common life dedicated to the cause of the working class.

After Lenin left Shushenskoye, in February 1900, Krupskaya spent the remaining year of her exile in Ufa, where she made contacts with the workers of that town and of Zlatoust and Ust-Katava. She acted as organizer, collected material and literary contributions for the Social-Democratic newspaper *Iskra* and arranged for the underground receipt and distribution of that newspaper in Ufa.

When her term of exile was up, in March 1901, Krupskaya went to Munich, where Lenin then lived. There she was appointed secretary to the *Iskra* editorial board and was very active in organizing underground contacts with Russia. In 1903 she took part in the Second Congress of the Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party and later, when the newspaper *Vperyod* was organized, she was again made secretary to the editorial board. In April 1905 the Third Party Congress was held in London. She participated in its labours and edited its minutes and resolutions.

October 1905 finds Krupskaya and Lenin in St. Petersburg. There Krupskaya carried on important organizational work for the Party. She was in charge of contacts between Party committees, supplied party organizations with literature and passports and arranged secret meeting places.

In December 1905, when attending the Party conference at Tanmerfors, she met Stalin for the first time.

In 1907 Lenin and Krupskaya again had to emigrate and this time took up their abode in Geneva. A severe reaction had set in in Russia, making it exceedingly difficult for those abroad to establish and maintain underground contacts with Russia. But Krupskaya with her usual energy overcame these handicaps and managed to arrange the interchange of letters and keep up connections with Russia. At the end of 1908 she moved to Paris. In 1911 she worked in the Party school at Longjumeau, near Paris, which had been organized under

Lenin's directions for Bolshevik workers who came from Russia. After the Prague Party conference (1912) Lenin and Krupskaya went to live in Cracow, where they soon secured close connections with Russia. Before long their correspondence with the Party organizations and individual Social-Democrats became quite lively and more and more comrades arrived from Russia.

After the revolution of February 1917, Krupskaya returned to St. Petersburg. During this period she displayed the utmost energy in the Bolshevik Party's preparations for the armed uprising. She spoke at meetings and rallies, explained the meaning of the Bolshevik slogans to the masses, and was closely associated with the formation of youth organizations as well as organizations of women workers and soldiers' wives.

During the days of the Great October Socialist Revolution Krupskaya worked in a district Party committee in Petrograd and, when the People's Commissariat of Education (now the Ministry of Education) was established, she became a member of the Commissariat Collegium, which position she held uninterruptedly, proving herself an untiring champion and exponent of the Party's policy on the cultural front. Krupskaya worked hard to establish a new Soviet school system, and new clubs and libraries, succeeded in setting up a system of public education in the non-Russian republics and regions, and organized the work necessary to abolish complete and semi-illiteracy.

At the same time she was very active among the women and the youth. She wrote numerous articles and pamphlets on this work and attended international women's conferences. In 1921 she edited a teachers' magazine called *On the Way to a New School System*, and in 1930 organized and headed a society of Marxist pedagogues.

In 1924 Lenin died. Krupskaya bore this grievous loss, which shook the whole country, with great fortitude and spiritual strength. Her simple and heartening words, uttered during these days of mourning, will never be forgotten. "Vladimir Ilyich realized," she said, "that it is the historic task of the working class to liberate all the oppressed, to free all working people. . . . This fundamental idea left its imprint on all the work of Vladimir Ilyich. Comrades, representatives of the Soviet republics, the republics of the working people! It is to you that I address my appeal to take this idea of Vladimir Ilyich particularly to heart." After Lenin's death Krupskaya continued to work with the same persistency and energy. She continued her work in the People's Commissariat of Education, worked in the Central Control Commission of the Bolshevik Party and wrote her reminiscences of Lenin.

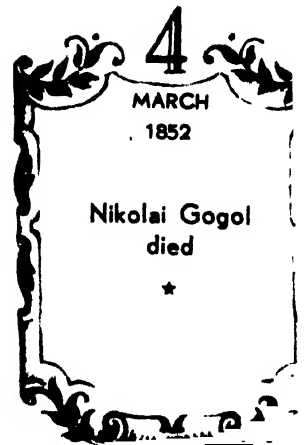
Krupskaya always maintained close contact with the masses. A large number of people came to her on business or for advice, knowing they would find in her not only an experienced but an understanding and sympathetic comrade as well. The whole country knew and loved Krupskaya, the worthy associate and life companion of the great Lenin, and a prominent, indefatigable leader of the cultural revolution. Krupskaya took part in all the Party congresses, with the exception of the fifth, held in London, and was elected a member of the Party Central Committee by its fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth congresses. She passed away in 1939. Fifty years of her life she had given to the service of her people and will go down in the history of the Russian revolution as a brilliant example of undivided devotion to the cause of liberating the toiling people.

MARCH

- MARCH 4, 1947** *95th anniversary of the death of Nikolai Gogol, the great Russian writer.*
- MARCH 8** *International Women's Day.*
- MARCH 9, 1890** *Birth of Vyacheslav Mikhailovich Molotov, Vice Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. and Minister of Foreign Affairs of the U.S.S.R.*
- MARCH 12, 1947** *30th anniversary of the February bourgeois-democratic revolution in Russia. Tsarist autocracy overthrown.*
- MARCH 14, 1946** *Stalin's interview with Pravda correspondent on Churchill's speech published.*
- MARCH 15, 1946** *The Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. passed the law on the reorganization of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. into the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R., and of the Councils of People's Commissars of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics into Councils of Ministers of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics.*
- MARCH 16, 1919** *Yakov Sverdlov, one of the leading figures in the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet government, died.*
- MARCH 18, 1946** *The Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. passed the law on the Five-Year Plan for the Reconstruction and Development of the National Economy of the U.S.S.R. for 1946-50.*
- MARCH 31, 1940** *The Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic formed.*



SALAH MING BAHADU



NIKOLAI GOGOL

NIKOLAI GOGOL

(1809-1852)

NIKOLAI VASSILIEVICH GOGOL spent his childhood on the estate of his parents, petty landowners in the Poltava gubernia. The patriarchal life of the landowners with its old traditions, the beautiful Ukrainian landscape, the songs of wandering minstrels, the conversations of guests who talked of the free Cossacks of the Zaporozhye Soch, the wealth of national legends—all this fed the imagination of the child. These impressions were reflected later in Gogol's stories in a number of idyllic and fantastic scenes.

Nikolai Gogol studied in the Nezhin gymnasium from 1821 to 1828 and after graduation he went to St. Petersburg.

Gogol's first novel, *St. John's Eve*, a story of Ukrainian life, appeared in 1830 in the magazine *Otechestvenniye Zapiski*. This was followed by a fragment from a historical novel published in an Almanac, and by other works, which won the author repute in literary circles.

His stories and novelettes of Ukrainian life were published in 1831-34 in collections under the titles *Evenings in a Farm near Dikanka* and *Mirgorod*. These books were hailed with delight by both the reading public and the critics. Alexander Pushkin, the great Russian poet, was among the first to appreciate Gogol's talent and wrote: "I have just read *Evenings near Dikanka*. The book amazed me. Here is real humour, sincere, unconstrained, without affectation, without prudishness. And in places what poetic feeling! All this is so unusual in our present-day literature that I still have not come to myself. I was told that when the publisher walked into the printshop where *Dikanka* was being printed, he found the compositors convulsed with laughter. The foreman explained to him that the cause of the merriment among the compositors was Gogol's book, which they were setting up. Molière and Fielding would in all probability have been happy to make their printers laugh. I congratulate the public on receiving a truly humorous book and from the bottom of my heart wish the author further success."

In his *Evenings in a Farm near Dikanka* Gogol depicted the life of the Ukraine in its past heroic setting, but the patriotic motif is more salient in his Cossack tales *Taras Bulba* (1833-42). Here the author presents to the reader vivid pictures describing old Cossackdom and its struggle against foreign invaders, and creates wonderful characters of staunch fighters for liberty. Especially imposing is his character-study of old Taras, the grim avenger, behind whom "rose the whole nation, for the cup of the people's patience had been filled—they rose up to avenge the mockery of their rights, the shameful humiliation of their customs..."

Besides the delineation of the heroic, Gogol has given us in his *Mirgorod* stories a picture of the drab and everyday reality, which the author himself called "the frightful morass of minutiae" (*Old-World Gentlefolks, The Story of How Ivan Ivanovich Quarrelled with Ivan Nikiforovich*).

In his tales of St. Petersburg life, Gogol depicted the capital's poor, the petty government clerks and artisans suffering from a sense of their own social inequality.

Gogol also displayed his great satirical talent as a writer of plays. His comedy *Inspector General* (1836) won a prominent place for itself in the repertoire of the Russian theatre. His aim in writing this comedy, to use the author's own words, was "to drag into light all that was bad in Russia... and to hold it up to ridicule." Gogol's caustic satire was pointed with trenchant force against contemporary reality. All the characters of this celebrated comedy are nonentities: the principal character of the play named Khlestakov, who arrives in a provincial town where the scared officials, bribetakers and speculators take him for a government inspector travelling incognito, is a nonentity; the petty gossips and chatterboxes Bobchinsky and Dobchinsky are nonentities; the wife and daughter of the provost carrying on a vulgar flirtation with the giddy-headed imposter Khlestakov are nonentities. Though the scene takes place in a remote provincial little town from which "you will never reach any country, not

even if you ride hard for three years" it is clearly a satire on the whole of feudal Russia with her arbitrary rule and the corruption of her officials preying on the disfranchised masses of the people. Contemporary memoirs describe the enormous success which this comedy had on its presentation. It won for Gogol numerous enemies. One nobleman claimed that Gogol "is an enemy of Russia and he should be sent to Siberia in chains." A high official was "horrified that *Inspector General* should have been allowed to be staged." In his opinion it was "an outrageous caricature of the entire administration of Russia which is safeguarding social order, labouring for the good of the country, while here, if you please, some petty government clerk dares to ridicule not only the lower class of officials but even the provincial governors."

The appearance in 1842 of *Dead Souls* evoked numerous and contradictory criticism. The critics voicing the opinion of the Russian serf-owners tried to prove that "Russian people are annihilated" in this now work of Gogol and expressed their indignation over "the putridity" of the scenes he depicted. Progressive readers, among whom were Alexander Herzen, regarded *Dead Souls* as "a bitter reproach of modern Russia." The ghastly life of landlord Russia and the greedy exploiting tendencies and contemptibility of the owners of millions of serf peasants is reproduced with great realistic art in wonderful scenes and character-studies. The hero of *Dead Souls*, Chichikov, is represented as a predatory adventurer greedy for acquisition, a type that first made its appearance in Russian social life in the 'forties with the development of capitalism. He goes about Russia buying up "dead souls," i.e., documents evidencing ownership of serfs, who have died since the last census, but whose death had not been recorded in the official register, with the view to pledging this imaginary property in banks. "The very title of *Dead Souls*," wrote Alexander Herzen, "is fraught with horror. And he could not have given it any other name." But the real "dead souls" in Gogol's works are not the serfs but their owners, these hideous types of serf-proprietors.

The characters of *Dead Souls* are portrayed with a vividness which has rendered their names common appellatives. Such are Chichikov the moneygrubber, Plyushkin the miser, Korobochka the greedy landlady, Nozdrev the braggart and liar, Manilov the barren dreamer, and so on. The great Russian critic and revolutionary democrat Vissarion Belinsky frequently alluded to Gogol's characters in his essays; he identified them in the life of Western Europe, too, though there they wore a different garb: "these are the same Chichikovs, only in different dress... they do not buy up dead souls but living souls, bribing them at the parliamentary elections." Lenin, too, often alluded to the characters of Gogol, and so does Joseph Stalin.

The Russian democrat Nikolai Chernyshevsky, speaking of the significance of *Dead Souls*, wrote that Gogol "seethed with a passionate hatred for everything that was low and wicked," that "he awakened in us a consciousness of our own selves." Indeed, that was the real measure of Gogol's inestimable service to Russian literature.

Gogol's works exercised a great influence on the subsequent development of Russian letters. He served as a model for such famous Russian writers as Ivan Turgenev, Fyodor Dostoyevsky, Nikolai Nekrasov, Alexander Herzen, Alexander Ostrovsky and Saltykov-Shchedrin who followed the broad road of realism that had been laid by their great predecessor.

One of the greatest of Russian writers, who exposed in exquisite works of art the evils and corruption of feudal society and serfage in old Russia, Nikolai Gogol is near and dear to the heart of contemporary Soviet readers, who can discern in the withering scorn of his humour "the burning sparks of an infinite and mighty love" (Gogol). The humanism of Gogol is an aid to Soviet men and women in their struggle to attain a new and happy life.



TRACTOR DRIVER PRASKOVYA ANGELINA, DEPUTY TO THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE U.S.S.R.
AND HERO OF SOCIALIST LABOUR, WITH HER DAUGHTER



SOVIET WOMEN

TO UNDERSTAND the full significance of what the October Socialist Revolution meant to Soviet women, we must recall the position held by women in pre-revolutionary Russia.

A woman in tsarist Russia did not have any political rights. The law forbade her to occupy any government post.

Obstacles were placed in the path of women who ventured into the field of science and knowledge. A census taken in tsarist Russia in 1897 showed that only 12.4 per cent of the women were literate. Of the total number of women gainfully employed, more than half were household servants and 25 per cent worked as farm hands; women comprised 13 per cent of the workers in the industry.

In the factories where female labour was employed the working day was longer than usual and women were paid much less than men with the same qualifications.

The Soviet government in one of its first decrees completely abolished the inequality between man and woman, and cancelled all restrictions on the rights of women. Moreover, in eliminating national oppression, Soviet power gave equality to the women of the formerly oppressed nationalities and opened wide the doors for them, on a par with the Russian women, to all government institutions and all branches of public endeavour.

Women in the U.S.S.R. have the same rights as men in economic, state, cultural, social and political life. They work on equal terms with men and receive the same wages for the same work, enjoy equal right to rest, social insurance, professional and technical education.

The number of women engaged in productive labour is growing from year to year. Before World War II there were more than 11,000,000 women working in industry in the U.S.S.R., i.e., 40 per cent of the country's entire contingent of workers.

Women in the U.S.S.R. have won a firm position for themselves in the most qualified professions. There are about 250,000 women engineers and technicians, and 100,000 women doctors.

Under Soviet power the cultural and political level of the women grew immeasurably.

There are quite a number of women in the ranks of prominent leaders of Soviet science, engineering and art. Many women have become famous; among them are Lina Stern, the outstanding physiologist and academician who holds the title of Merited Worker of Science, Anna Pankratova, professor of history and Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R., Professor Maria Petrova, M. D., Natalia Lazarenko, engineer and Stalin Prize winner, and many others.

There are up to 35,000 women scientific workers. One hundred and ninety-nine women have been awarded Stalin Prizes for outstanding work in science, engineering, the arts and letters.

Soviet women play an active role in government affairs. More than 1,700 women are deputies to the Supreme Soviets of the Union Republics and Autonomous Republics, 277 are deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., 456,000 women are deputies to local Soviets. Many of them occupy leading posts in government bodies. Chimmas Aslanova, for instance, is Vice Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. Not a few women are Ministers and Deputy Ministers. The great role that women play in

the political, economic and cultural life of the country is evidenced by the fact that there are more than a million women in the ranks of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks), i.e., one-sixth of all the members and candidates for membership in the Party.

Marked political and cultural progress was made by peasant women during the Soviet period. They became active builders of collective-farm life: 200,000 women are chairmen of collective farms or leaders of collective-farm brigades. Tens of thousands of women collective farmers have qualified as drivers of tractors, harvester combines and automobiles.

The remarkable qualities that had been developed in Soviet women manifested themselves during the Great Patriotic War. In these difficult years, Soviet women displayed a passionate patriotism. In industry and agriculture they replaced men who had left for the front and worked selflessly, courageously and heroically.

They showed themselves worthy of the trust that had been placed in them and successfully met the demands of the front.

Hundreds of thousands of women served in the Soviet Army as doctors, nurses, signallers, anti-aircraft gunners, snipers and pilots. The names of many of them have been inscribed in the history of the Great Patriotic War. The outstanding Soviet ace, Hero of the Soviet Union Marina Raskova, commanded a women's air regiment and fell in battle in defence of her country.

Sniper Ludmilla Pavlyuchenko killed 309 German fascist invaders during the defence of Sevastopol and was awarded the high title of Hero of the Soviet Union. The girl-partisan Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya, who was savagely tortured to death by the German barbarians in December 1941, is a national heroine who embodies all the best features of the Soviet woman. "True, Hero of the Soviet Union Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya is an outstanding girl," wrote M. I. Kalinin. "But she is a typical girl of our country, since the potential readiness to do great deeds lived and lives in the hearts of the majority of Soviet women."

The Soviet government highly appraised the great services rendered by Soviet women: more than 240,000 women were decorated during the war with Orders and Medals, and of these almost 120,000 were decorated for bravery displayed in action. Hundreds of thousands of women were decorated for their participation in the defence of the hero-cities, 137,000 with the Medal "For the Defence of Moscow."

There are 62 women who have been accorded the country's highest distinction—Hero of the Soviet Union. The title of "Partisan of the Patriotic War" has been conferred upon 7,807 women.

In September 1941, a few months after the outbreak of the Great Patriotic War, the Soviet Women's Anti-Fascist Committee was formed on the initiative of the women of Moscow. On the initiative of this Committee a united front of women of all democratic countries against fascism was created.

At the Women's World Congresses organized by the Women's World Democratic Federation, the voice of Soviet women is now often heard exposing the incendiaries of a new war, calling upon progressive leaders of all countries to defend democracy, to completely eradicate the remnants of fascism, and to consolidate peace.

CONGRESS OF THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN
IN PARIS, NOVEMBER 1945.

Right to left, Soviet delegates
Clavdia Kirsanova, Nadezhda Shurygina and Darya Garmash





3



VYACHESLAV MOLOTOV

"AS REGARDS THE SOVIET UNION, AMONG OUR PEOPLE THERE IS NO HESITATION OR DOUBT THAT PEACE AMONG THE NATIONS AND PEACEFUL COMPETITION AMONG THEM—WHICH ALSO IMPLIES THE POSSIBILITY OF DEVELOPING EVER BROADER AND FRIENDLIER COLLABORATION AND MUTUAL ASSISTANCE BETWEEN BIG AND SMALL STATES ACCORD ENTIRELY WITH THE INTERESTS OF OUR COUNTRY."

V. M. Molotov

*(Excerpt from a speech at the UNO
General Assembly, October 29, 1946)*



V. M. MOLOTOV

VYACHESLAV MIKHAILOVICH MOLOTOV (Skriabin), member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B), Vice Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. and Minister of Foreign Affairs, was born on March 9, 1890, in the township of Kukarka, Vyatka gubernia (now the town of Sovietsk, Kirov region). He was educated at the high school in Kazan, where he commenced his revolutionary activities.

V. M. Molotov took part in the revolution of 1905-07. In 1906 he joined the Bolshevik Party. In April 1909 he was arrested and exiled to the Vologda gubernia, where he conducted underground Party activities and formed a Bolshevik organization.

In June 1911, when his term of exile expired, he left for St. Petersburg, where he worked under the immediate direction of Lenin and Stalin.

At the beginning of 1912, V. M. Molotov worked on the staff of the Bolshevik newspaper *Zvezda*, and took an active part in launching the newspaper *Pravda*, on which he held the position of a member and secretary of the editorial board. Simultaneously with his activities on the staff of *Pravda* he conducted Party and propaganda work as a member of the St. Petersburg Committee of the Party. He took part in the campaign during the elections to the Fourth State Duma.

After undergoing arrest and deportation several times during 1913 and 1914, V. M. Molotov went underground, and in the autumn of 1914 he conducted underground Party activities in Moscow. In June 1915 he was arrested again, and in the following September was sentenced to three years exile in the village of Manzurka, in the Irkutsk gubernia. He escaped in May 1916 and went to Petrograd. During the period of the first World War he was a member of the St. Petersburg Committee and of the Russian Bureau of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party. During the revolution in February 1917 he stood at the head of the Bureau of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party. He directed the resumption of publication of *Pravda*, of which he acted as one of the chief editors until Comrade Stalin's return from exile.

V. M. Molotov was a member of the Military Revolutionary Committee which directed the insurrection in Petrograd in October 1917. After the October Revolution he became one of the principal leaders of the Petrograd Soviet of Workers'

and Soldiers' Deputies. In January 1918 he became Chairman of the Council of National Economy of the Northern region. In the summer of 1919 he was appointed representative of the Party and the Soviet government in the Volga region. At the end of 1919 he became Chairman of the Nizhni Novgorod Gubernia Executive Committee and subsequently was elected Secretary of the Donetsk Gubernia Committee of the Party. In 1920 he was elected a member and Secretary of the Central Committee of the C.P.(B.) of the Ukraine. At the Tenth Congress of the Party held in 1921 he was elected a member and Secretary of the Central Committee of the R.C.P.(B.) and also an alternate member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the Party. In 1926 he was elected a member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.). From 1928 to 1930 he was Secretary of the Moscow Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.) and concurrently Secretary of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.).

On December 19, 1930, V. M. Molotov was appointed Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars and of the Council of Labour and Defence of the U.S.S.R. On May 3, 1939, he was appointed Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. and People's Commissar of Foreign Affairs. On May 6, 1941, after Comrade Stalin was appointed Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R., V. M. Molotov was appointed Vice Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. From June 30, 1941 to September 4, 1945, he acted as Vice Chairman of the State Committee of Defence.

V. M. Molotov represents the Molotov Electoral District of Moscow in the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. On March 8, 1940, he was awarded the Order of Lenin. By a Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. issued on September 30, 1943, he was awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labour, the Order of Lenin and the Gold Hammer and Sickle Medal for special services rendered in increasing the output of tanks under difficult wartime conditions.

By a Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., issued on November 5, 1945, he was awarded the Order of Lenin for successfully fulfilling government assignments during the Great Patriotic War. In March 1946 he was appointed Vice Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. and Minister of Foreign Affairs.



Painting by I. Vladimirov

PETROGRAD IN THE DAYS OF THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION, 1917



THE OVERTHROW OF TSARISM

ON MARCH 12 (February 27), 1917 the workers, in alliance with the peasants, rose against the tsarist autocracy in Russia and overthrew its rule.

This victory was prepared for by the struggle which the working class had waged under the leadership of the Bolshevik Party during the period of the first Russian Revolution of 1905-07 and the subsequent years of reaction, during the period of the new revolutionary upsurge, and during the First World War.

The year 1917 was inaugurated by the strike of January 9. In the course of this strike demonstrations were held in Petrograd, Moscow, Baku and Nizhni Novgorod. In Moscow about one-third of the workers took part in the strike of January 9. A demonstration of two thousand persons on the Tverskoi Boulevard was dispersed by mounted police. A demonstration on the Vyborg Chaussée in Petrograd was joined by soldiers.

On February 18, 1917 a strike broke out at the Putilov Works in Petrograd. On February 22 the workers of most of the big factories were on strike. On International Women's Day, February 23 (March 8), at the call of the Petrograd Bolshevik Committee, working women came out in the streets to demonstrate against starvation, war and tsardom. The Petrograd workers supported the demonstration of the working women by a city-wide strike movement. The political strike began to grow into a general political demonstration against the tsarist system.

On February 24 (March 9) the demonstration was resumed with even greater vigour. About 200,000 workers were already on strike.

On February 25 (March 10) the whole of working-class Petrograd had joined the revolutionary movement. The political strikes in the districts merged into a general political strike of the whole city. Demonstrations and clashes with the police took place everywhere. Over the masses of workers floated red banners bearing the slogans: "Down with the tsar!" "Down with the war!" "We want bread!"

On the morning of February 26 (March 11) the political strike and demonstration began to assume the character of an uprising. The workers disarmed police and gendarmes and armed themselves. Nevertheless, the clashes with the

police ended with the shooting down of a demonstration on Znamensky Square.

General Khabalov, commander of the Petrograd Military Area, announced that the workers must return to work by February 28 (March 13), otherwise they would be sent to the front. On February 25 (March 10) the tsar gave orders to General Khabalov: "I command you to put a stop to the disorders in the capital not later than tomorrow."

But "to put a stop" to the revolution was no longer possible.

On February 26 (March 11) the 4th Company of the Reserve Battalion of the Pavlovsky Regiment opened fire, not on the workers, however, but on squads of mounted police who were engaged in a skirmish with the workers. A most energetic and persistent drive was made to win over the troops, especially by the working women, who addressed themselves directly to the soldiers, fraternized with them and called upon them to help the people to overthrow the hated tsarist autocracy.

The practical work of the Bolshevik Party at that time was directed by the Bureau of the Central Committee of the Party which had its quarters in Petrograd and was headed by Molotov. On February 26 (March 11) the Bureau of the Central Committee issued a manifesto calling for the continuation of the armed struggle against tsardom and the formation of a Provisional Revolutionary Government.

On February 27 (March 12) the troops in Petrograd refused to fire on the workers and began to line up with the people in revolt. The number of soldiers who had joined the revolt by the morning of February 27 was still no more than 10,000, but by the evening it already exceeded 60,000.

The workers and soldiers who had risen in revolt began to arrest tsarist ministers and generals and to free revolutionaries from jail. The released political prisoners joined the revolutionary struggle.

In the streets, shots were still being exchanged with police and gendarmes posted with machine guns in the attics of houses. But the troops rapidly went over to the side of the workers, and this decided the fate of the tsarist autocracy.

When the news of the victory of the revolution in Petrograd spread to other towns and to the front, the workers and soldiers everywhere began to depose the tsarist officials.

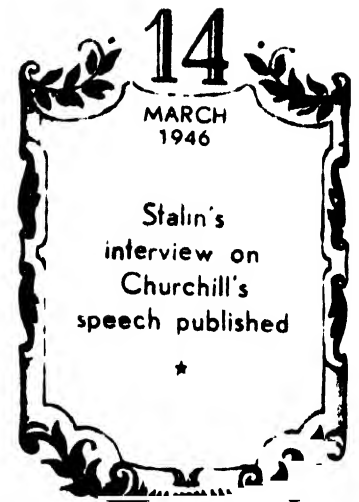
The February bourgeois-democratic revolution had won.

STALIN GIVES INTERVIEW

To *Pravda* Correspondent

Concerning Churchill's Speech

March 13, 1946



THE OTHER DAY a *Pravda* correspondent asked Comrade Stalin to clarify a number of questions connected with Mr. Churchill's speech. Below are given Comrade Stalin's replies to the questions put by the correspondent.

QUESTION. How do you appraise the latest speech Mr. Churchill delivered in the United States of America?

ANSWER. I appraise it as a dangerous act calculated to sow the seeds of discord between the Allied states and hamper their co-operation.

QUESTION. Can Mr. Churchill's speech be regarded as harmful to the cause of peace and security?

ANSWER. Unquestionably, yes. As a matter of fact, Mr. Churchill's position is now that of the incendiaries of war. And Mr. Churchill is not alone in this—he has friends not only in England but in the United States of America as well.

It should be noted that in this respect Mr. Churchill and his friends strikingly resemble Hitler and his friends. Hitler set out to unleash war by proclaiming the race theory, declaring that the German-speaking people constituted a superior nation. Mr. Churchill sets out to unleash war also with a race theory, by asserting that the English-speaking nations are superior nations called upon to decide the destinies of the entire world. The German race theory led Hitler and his friends to the conclusion that the Germans as the only superior nation must dominate other nations. The English race theory leads Mr. Churchill and his friends to the conclusion that the English-speaking nations, as the only superior nations, must dominate the other nations of the world.

As a matter of fact, Mr. Churchill and his friends in England and the U.S.A. are presenting something in the nature of an ultimatum to nations which do not speak English: recognize our domination voluntarily and then everything will be in order—otherwise war is inevitable.

But the nations shed their blood during five years of fierce war for the sake of the freedom and independence of their countries, and not for the sake of replacing the domination of the Hitlers by the domination of the Churchills. Therefore, it is quite probable that the nations which do not speak English and at the same time constitute the vast majority of the world's population, will not agree to submit to the new slavery.

Mr. Churchill's tragedy is that he as an inveterate Tory does not understand this simple and obvious truth.

Undoubtedly Mr. Churchill's line is that of war, a call to war against the U.S.S.R. It is also clear that this line of Mr. Churchill is incompatible with the existing treaty of alliance between Britain and the U.S.S.R. True, in order to confuse the readers, Mr. Churchill states in passing that the term of the Soviet-British treaty of mutual assistance and co-operation could perfectly well be extended to fifty years. But how can such a statement by Mr. Churchill be reconciled with his line of war against the U.S.S.R., with his preaching of war against the U.S.S.R.? Clearly these things cannot be recon-

ciled by any means. And if Mr. Churchill, who is calling for war against the Soviet Union, at the same time believes it possible to extend the term of the Anglo-Soviet treaty to fifty years, that means that he regards this treaty as a mere scrap of paper which he needs only to cover up and camouflage his anti-Soviet line. Therefore we cannot treat seriously the hypocritical statement of Mr. Churchill's friends in England concerning the extension of the term of the Soviet-British treaty to fifty years or more. The extension of the term of the treaty is meaningless if one of the parties violates the treaty and turns it into a mere scrap of paper.

QUESTION. How do you appraise that part of Mr. Churchill's speech in which he attacks the democratic system in the European states neighbouring with us and in which he criticizes the good-neighbourly relations established between these states and the Soviet Union?

ANSWER. This part of Mr. Churchill's speech represents a mixture of elements of slander with elements of rudeness and tactlessness.

Mr. Churchill asserts that "Warsaw, Berlin, Prague, Vienna, Budapest, Belgrade, Bucharest, Sofia—all these famous cities and populations around them lie within the Soviet sphere and all are subject in one form or another not only to Soviet influence but to a very high and increasing measure of control from Moscow." Mr. Churchill describes all this as boundless "expansionist tendencies" of the Soviet Union.

No special effort is necessary to prove that in this case Mr. Churchill is rudely and shamelessly slandering both Moscow and the above-mentioned states neighbouring with the U.S.S.R.

Firstly, it is utterly absurd to speak of exclusive control of the U.S.S.R. in Vienna and Berlin, where there are Allied Control Councils composed of representatives of the four states and where the U.S.S.R. has only one-fourth of the votes. It does happen that some people cannot help slandering, but even then there should be a limit.

Secondly, one must not forget the following fact. The Germans invaded the U.S.S.R. through Finland, Poland, Rumania, Bulgaria, Hungary. The Germans were able to effect the invasion by way of these countries because at that time governments hostile to the Soviet Union existed in these countries. Owing to the German invasion, the Soviet Union irrevocably lost in battles with the Germans and also as a result of German occupation and the driving off of Soviet people to German penal servitude some 7,000,000 persons. In other words the Soviet Union lost several times more people than Britain and the United States of America taken together. Possibly some quarters are inclined to consign to oblivion these colossal sacrifices of the Soviet people which secured the liberation of Europe from the Hitlerite yoke. But the Soviet Union cannot forget them. The question arises, what can there be surprising about the fact that the Soviet Union, desiring to insure its security in the future, seeks to achieve a situation when those countries will have governments main-

taining a friendly attitude towards the Soviet Union? How can anyone who has not gone mad describe these peaceful aspirations of the Soviet Union as expansionist tendencies of our state?

Mr. Churchill further states that "the Russian-dominated Polish government has been encouraged to make enormous wrongful inroads upon Germany."

Here every word is rude and offensive slander. Present-day democratic Poland is guided by outstanding men. They have proved by deeds that they are capable of defending the interests and dignity of their homeland in a manner of which their predecessors were not capable. What grounds has Mr. Churchill to assert that the leaders of present-day Poland can permit the "domination" of representatives of any foreign states whatever in their country? Is it not because Mr. Churchill intends to sow the seeds of discord in the relations between Poland and the Soviet Union that he slanders "the Russians" here? . . .

Mr. Churchill is displeased with the fact that Poland has effected a turn in her policy towards friendship and alliance with the U.S.S.R. There was a time when elements of conflict and contradiction prevailed in the relations between Poland and the U.S.S.R. That circumstance furnished statesmen of Mr. Churchill's kind with an opportunity to play on these contradictions, to lay their hands on Poland under the guise of protecting her from the Russians, to intimidate Russia with the spectre of war between her and Poland, and to reserve the position of arbitrators for themselves. But that time is past, for the enmity between Poland and Russia has yielded place to friendship between them, while Poland, present-day democratic Poland, does not want to be tossed around like a ball by foreigners any longer. It seems to me that it is this very circumstance that irritates Mr. Churchill and impels him to rude, tactless sallies against Poland. It is no joke: he is not allowed to play his game at someone else's expense. . . .

As regards Mr. Churchill's attacks on the Soviet Union in connection with Poland's extending her western frontiers into Polish territories seized by the Germans in the past, here, it seems to me, he is obviously sharpening. It is well known that the decision on Poland's western frontiers was adopted at the Berlin Conference of the Three Powers on the basis of Poland's demands. The Soviet Union has repeatedly stated that it regards Poland's demands correct and just. It is quite probable that Mr. Churchill is displeased with that decision. But why then does Mr. Churchill, while sparing no arrows against the position of the Russians in this matter, conceal from his readers the fact that the decision was adopted at the Berlin Conference unanimously, that not the Russians alone but the British and the Americans too voted for this decision? Why did Mr. Churchill need to mislead people?

Mr. Churchill further asserts that "the Communist parties, which were previously very small in all these eastern states of Europe, have been raised to pre-eminence and power far beyond their numbers, and seek everywhere to obtain totalitarian control. Police governments prevail in nearly every case, and thus far, except in Czechoslovakia, there is no true democracy."

It is well known that in Britain the state is now governed by one party, the Labour Party, while the opposition parties are devoid of the right to participate in the government of Britain. This is what Mr. Churchill calls true democracy. Poland, Rumania, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria and Hungary are

governed by blocs of several parties—from four to six parties—while the opposition, if it is more or less loyal, is secured the right of participating in the government. This is what Mr. Churchill calls totalitarianism, tyranny, police rule. Why and on what grounds—do not expect an answer from Mr. Churchill. Mr. Churchill does not understand in what a ridiculous position he places himself by his vociferous speeches about totalitarianism, tyranny, police rule.

Mr. Churchill would like Poland to be governed by Sosnkowski and Anders; Yugoslavia, by Mikhailovic and Pavelic; Rumania, by Prince Stirbei and Radescu; Hungary and Austria, by some king of the house of Hapsburgs, and so forth. Mr. Churchill wants to convince us that these gentlemen from the fascist backyard are capable of securing "true democracy." Such is Mr. Churchill's "democracy."

Mr. Churchill is wandering about the truth when he speaks of the growth of the influence of the Communist parties in Eastern Europe. It should be noted, however, that he is not quite accurate. The influence of the Communist parties has grown not only in Eastern Europe but in almost all the countries of Europe where fascism ruled before (Italy, Germany, Hungary, Bulgaria, Rumania, Finland), or where German, Italian or Hungarian occupation took place (France, Belgium, Holland, Norway, Denmark, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Greece, the Soviet Union, and so forth).

The growth of the influence of the Communists cannot be regarded as fortuitous. It is a perfectly legitimate phenomenon. The influence of the Communists has grown because in the hard years of fascist domination in Europe the Communists proved reliable, courageous, self-sacrificing fighters against the fascist regime, for the freedom of the peoples. Mr. Churchill sometimes mentions in his speeches "the simple people of cottages," patting them on the back in a lordly manner and posing as their friend. But these people are not so simple as they may seem at first glance. They, these "simple people," have their own views, their own policy, and they are able to stand up for themselves. It is they, the millions of these "simple people," who voted down Mr. Churchill and his party in England by casting their votes for the Labourites. It is they, the millions of these "simple people," who isolated the reactionaries in Europe, the adherents of collaboration with fascism, and gave preference to the left democratic parties. It is they, the millions of these "simple people," who tested the Communists in the fire of struggle and resistance to fascism and decided that the Communists fully deserve the people's trust. That is how the influence of the Communists has grown in Europe. Such is the law of historical development.

Naturally, Mr. Churchill does not like such a course of development and he sounds the alarm, appealing to force. But he similarly did not like the birth of the Soviet regime in Russia after the First World War. Then too he sounded the alarm and organized the military campaign of "14 states" against Russia, setting himself the goal of turning the wheel of history back. Yet history proved stronger than Churchillian intervention, and Mr. Churchill's quixotic ways brought about his utter defeat. I do not know whether Mr. Churchill and his friends will succeed in organizing after the Second World War a new military campaign against "Eastern Europe." But should they succeed—which is hardly probable, since millions of "simple people" are guarding the cause of peace—one can confidently say that they will be beaten just as they were beaten in the past, twenty-six years ago.



YAKOV SVERDLOV

YAKOV SVERDLOV

(1885-1919)

YAKOV MIKHAILOVICH SVERDLOV was an outstanding Soviet statesman, the first Chairman of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee of the Soviets of Workers' and Peasants' Deputies, one of the leading organizers of the Party of Bolsheviks.

Sverdlov was born in Nizhni Novgorod (now Gorky) in 1885.

From his early youth he devoted his life to the revolutionary struggle against the autocracy. As early as 1902 Sverdlov was arrested for participation in a political demonstration in Nizhni Novgorod.

At the very beginning of his revolutionary activity he joined the Bolshevik Party and became one of its most prominent organizers, agitators and propagandists. He was very active among the workers of Nizhni Novgorod and other cities along the Volga.

During the first Russian Revolution in 1905 Sverdlov worked in the Urals—the big Russian industrial centre, where he became a leader of the Ural workers.

When the revolution of 1905 was suppressed Sverdlov was arrested in Perm (now Molotov) and spent more than three years in prison. After leaving prison in 1909 Sverdlov conducted Party work in Moscow, but a new arrest soon put an end to his activities: the tsarist government banished him to the distant Naryn territory. Several months later, in the summer of 1910, Sverdlov escaped from exile and came to St. Petersburg where he resumed his revolutionary work. He was re-arrested in November of the same year and, after a long term in a St. Petersburg prison, was banished in the summer of 1911 to one of the remotest parts of the Naryn territory—Maximkin Yar.

At the Prague Conference of Bolsheviks in 1912 Joseph Stalin and Yakov Sverdlov, who were then in exile, were elected to the Central Committee of the Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party (Bolsheviks).

In autumn 1912 Sverdlov escaped from exile and, under the direction of Stalin, who had also escaped from exile, helped put into effect the decisions of the Prague Conference, worked on the editorial staff of *Pravda* and in the Social-Democratic fraction of the Fourth State Duma.

Sverdlov's arrest in February 1913 was followed several days later by the arrest of Stalin. They were both exiled to the village of Kureika in Turukhan territory.

In exile Sverdlov continued his revolutionary work, reading and writing extensively. His well-known writings of this

period are: *The Abolition of Capitalism, Essays on the History of the International Working-Class Movement*, etc.

The February Revolution of 1917 set Sverdlov free and he immediately went to St. Petersburg.

Sverdlov entered the February Revolution of 1917 as a recognized leader of the broad masses of the people. He knew and loved Russia well. Petrograd, Moscow, Nizhni Novgorod, Kazan, Saratov, Yaroslavl, Kostroma, Yekaterinburg and Perm remember this well-tried soldier of the revolution, his organizing ability and his inexhaustible energy.

At the April Party Conference in 1917 Sverdlov was elected to the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party and became Secretary of the Central Committee. From that moment to his very death he stood together with Lenin and Stalin at the helm of the revolution.

The victorious Great October Socialist Revolution advanced Sverdlov to the post of Chairman of the All-Union Central Executive Committee of the Soviets of Workers' and Peasants' Deputies—the first Soviet President.

Sverdlov set himself to the gigantic and manifold task of building the new Soviet state. Under the leadership of Lenin and Stalin and on their instructions Sverdlov worked to consolidate and organize the Soviet power; he worked on the draft of the first Constitution of the Soviet Republic, giving much of his strength and energy to the organization of the defence of the young republic, the organization and strengthening of the Soviet Army.

In March 1919, during one of his numerous trips through the country, Sverdlov fell seriously ill and died a few days later.

On March 18, 1919, Sverdlov was buried in the Red Square in Moscow.

At the graveside Lenin spoke of Sverdlov's remarkable traits, his exceptional organizational talent which reflected the great creative force of the masses of the people.

"An organizer to the marrow of his bones," said Stalin, speaking of Sverdlov, "an organizer by nature, by habit, by revolutionary education, by feeling, an organizer by his entire intense activity—such was the man Y. M. Sverdlov."

Sverdlov's life and activity represent a striking and instructive example of supreme service to the people.

Sverdlov has gone down into history as one of the founders of the Soviet state, as a builder of the new life, a champion of liberty and Soviet democracy.

THE STALIN FIVE-YEAR PLANS

for the Socialist Industrialization

of the U.S.S.R.



THE GREAT OCTOBER SOCIALIST REVOLUTION set before the victorious working class of Russia and its Communist Party the historical task of building a socialist society. The high road to the fulfilment of this goal was the socialist industrialization of the country.

The following factors made the task to be accomplished by socialist industrialization a complex one.

Tsarist Russia lagged 50 to 100 years behind the leading capitalist countries; most backward was the heavy industry and this made the problem of the tempo of socialist industrialization a particularly urgent one. Moreover, the young land of Soviets had to reckon with the possibility of a war attack; it was imperative to liquidate the technical and economic backwardness in 10 to 15 years.

The socialist industrialization of the U.S.S.R. entailed the technical re-equipment of all branches of the country's national economy, including agriculture, by the installation of new and up-to-date machinery. The land of Soviets had to train in a short time a huge number of skilled workers, create its own intelligentsia, engineers, architects, draughtsmen and others, utilizing in this work all the experience of the old specialists.

Apart from the extension and reconstruction of the old industries, socialist industrialization also called for the creation of branches of industry that did not exist in the country heretofore, such as the automobile, aviation, chemical, tractor and other industries. As a result, the task of rationally distributing the industry assumed great importance from the point of view of the proximity of the sources of raw materials to the points of their industrial processing, and from the point of view of the industrial development of the national republics and the remote regions. Simultaneously with the further development of the coal and metallurgical centre in the Donetz basin, a second large-scale coal and metallurgical centre in the East had to be created in order to utilize the ore wealth of the Urals and the extremely rich deposits of coal in the Kuznetsk basin in Western Siberia.

A constant increase in the productivity of labour, one of the most important factors of which was a new, socialist attitude to labour, became the most important factor for the rapid socialist industrialization of the U.S.S.R. This gave rise to nationwide socialist competition, which, as Joseph Stalin has said, is the "Communist method of building Socialism on the basis of the maximum efforts of millions of working people."

The decisive success of the policy of socialist industrialization became evident already at the close of 1927. In that

year the gross output of industry and agriculture as a whole, including the lumber and fishing industries, surpassed the pre-war level.

To carry out further tasks in socialist industrialization it was imperative to extend the principle of planning in the national economy; beginning with 1928, scientific and carefully worked out national-economic plans to be implemented within a period of five years were drawn up. These five-year plans, which embraced all sides of the life of the country—industry, transport, agriculture and culture—are called "The Stalin Five-Year Plans" by the peoples of the U.S.S.R.

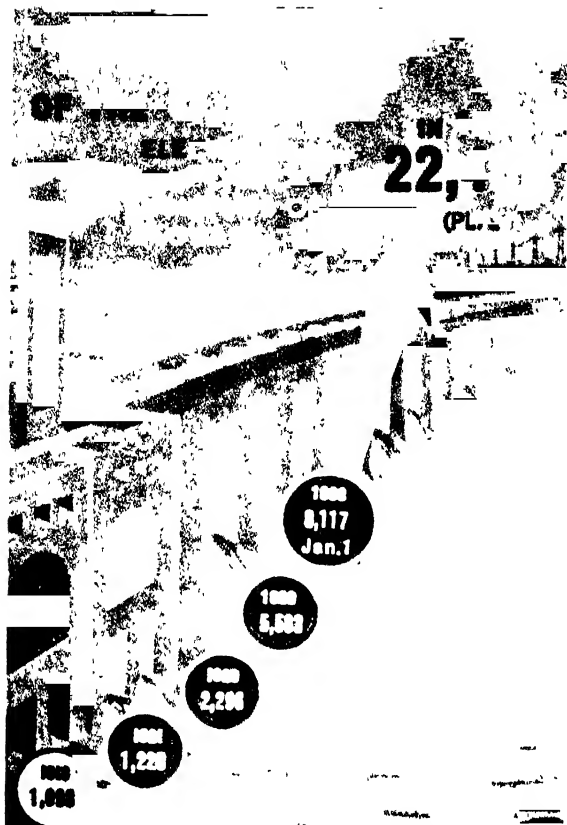
The first Five-Year Plan for the development of the national economy was set for the period 1928-33.

The capital investments in the national economy of the country in accordance with this plan amounted to 64,600,000,000 rubles. Of this sum, 19,500,000,000 were invested in industry and electrification, 10,000,000,000 in transport, 23,200,000,000 in agriculture. By the end of the Five-Year Plan period the annual industrial output was to comprise 70 per cent of the total production of the country instead of the 42 per cent in 1928.

This plan was completed ahead of schedule in 1932, and in this connection it is noteworthy that while the gross output of the industry for the years 1928-32 increased 130 per cent the output of the machine-building industry increased 340 per cent. This meant that the basis for the technical reconstruction of the entire national economy had been created.

The construction of the Dnieper Hydroelectric Power Station was started under the first Stalin Five-Year Plan. In the Donetz basin the construction of the Kramatorsk and Gorlovka Plants and reconstruction of the Lugansk Locomotive-Building Plant were begun. New mines and new blast furnaces were built. The Ural Machine-Building Plant and the Bereznykov and Solikamsk Chemical Works were being built in the Urals. Construction was started on the Magnitogorsk Metallurgical Plant, on the big automobile factories in Moscow and Gorky, on giant tractor and harvester combine plants and the agricultural machinery plant in Rostov-on-Don. The second coal centre of the Soviet Union, the Kuznetsk basin, was being enlarged. A huge tractor plant was built in Stalin-grad in 11 months.

The successes that were scored in the fulfilment of the first Stalin Five-Year Plan determined the swing of the peasant masses towards collective farming. A big role was played in this connection by the state farms and the machine and tractor stations which were equipped with tractors and other machines. Closely following their work, the Soviet peasants



IN 1950 THE ELECTRIC ENERGY OUTPUT WILL AMOUNT TO 82,000,000,000 KILO-WATT-HOURS, EXCEEDING 40 TIMES THAT OF OLD RUSSIA

became convinced of the advantages of large-scale socialist agriculture and began to form collective farms.

The transition of millions of tiny, individually-run farms to collective farming, to the road of Socialism, led to the eradication of the last roots of capitalism in the U.S.S.R., and meant the conclusive victory of Socialism in the countryside.

As a result of the successful execution of the first Five-Year Plan, the U.S.S.R. was converted from an agrarian into an industrial country in which an unshakable foundation of socialist economy—with a first-class socialist heavy industry and the biggest collective mechanized agriculture in the world—had been built up, into a country where the exploitation of man by man had been abolished both in the towns and in the countryside, and where the conditions for a constant improvement in the material well-being and cultural level of the population had been created. This was a victory of historic importance. To gain this victory, the Communist Party and the Soviet government had to overcome reaction and sabotage by hostile elements who tried to disrupt the work of the industrialization of the country and the collectivization of agriculture.

The second Five-Year Plan (1933-37) was likewise fulfilled ahead of schedule—in four years and three months. The tasks set by this plan were on a much grander scale than those of the first Five-Year Plan. They included the final liquidation of the capitalist elements in the country, the completion of the reconstruction of the entire national economy on the basis of up-to-date technical science, the mastering of the new technique in the new enterprises, the further mechaniza-

tion of agriculture, increased farm output, and the completion of the collectivization in the countryside.

The volume of capital works in the second Five-Year Plan period was scheduled at 133,000,000,000 rubles against the 64 odd milliard rubles under the first Five-Year Plan. This huge volume of capital work assured the complete technical re-equipment of all branches of the national economy and was one of the most important conditions for the strengthening of the defensive might of the U.S.S.R. By 1937 the industrial output was to amount to 92,700,000,000 rubles, i.e., approximately an eightfold increase over the pre-war level.

The second Five-Year Plan envisaged the completion of the mechanization of agriculture. By 1937 the capacity of the tractor park had to be brought up to over 8,000,000 horse power as against 2,250,000 horse power in 1932. The plan likewise envisioned the further increase in the material well-being and cultural level of the workers and peasants: an increase in the wage fund from 32,000,000,000 to 51,000,000,000 rubles; a doubling of the wages of factory and office workers, and an increase from 4,300,000,000 to 9,300,000,000 rubles in expenditures for free cultural and health services for the working people.

M E T A L

THE BASIS OF THE INDUSTRIAL POWER OF THE U.S.S.R.



ACCORDING TO THE NEW FIVE-YEAR PLAN THERE WILL BE PRODUCED

IN 1950

STEEL	— 25.4	MILLION TONS
CAST IRON	— 19.5	MILLION TONS
ROLLED STEEL	— 17.8	MILLION TONS

The institutions of higher learning graduated 369,900 specialists in the second Five-Year Plan period, double the number of graduates under the first Five-Year Plan. The same proportion, a twofold increase, was achieved in the number of specialists of secondary qualifications.

As a result of the fulfilment of the second Five-Year Plan the U.S.S.R. occupied second place in Europe for output of pig iron, steel, aluminium and electric power; first place in Europe for production of iron ore, superphosphates, agricultural machines, tractors and trucks; first place in the world for the manufacture of harvester combines and the production of beet sugar. The Soviet Union, outstripping all the countries of the world in tempo of growth, continued to develop at a time when capitalist industry was experiencing two devastating economic crises, in 1929-33 and in 1937.

After successfully carrying out the second Five-Year Plan, the U.S.S.R. entered the phase of completion of the building up of a classless socialist society and the gradual transition from Socialism to Communism. A new tremendous task was set before the Soviet people—that of overtaking and outstripping the chief capitalist countries economically, i.e., in per capita output of production, within 10-15 years.

This new task provided the basis for the third Five-Year Plan (1938-42).

A huge program of construction work was carried out in three and a half years; the volume of capital work amounted to 130,000,000,000 rubles; about 3,000 factories, mills, mines and electric power stations were put into operation. During the first three years the output of the means of production was increased 50 per cent and the output of the machine-building industry 75 per cent. The output of light industry and agriculture grew constantly. Grain output in 1940 amounted to 119,000,000 tons. The material prosperity and cultural level of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. continued to rise steadily. The perfidious attack of Hitler Germany on the U.S.S.R. on June 22, 1941 disrupted the general rise of the national economy and the blossoming of the cultured and prosperous life of the Soviet peoples. The industrial power of the U.S.S.R., forged under the Stalin Five-Year Plans, fully manifested



THE NEW FIVE-YEAR PLAN PROVIDES
FOR AN INCREASE

IN OUTPUT TO **35,400,000 TONS**

itself during the war with Hitler Germany. Despite the temporary loss of economically important regions in the South and West, the U.S.S.R., thanks to the powerful industrial bases that had been created in the East, proved able to supply the Soviet Army with fighting equipment in huge and ever-growing quantities.

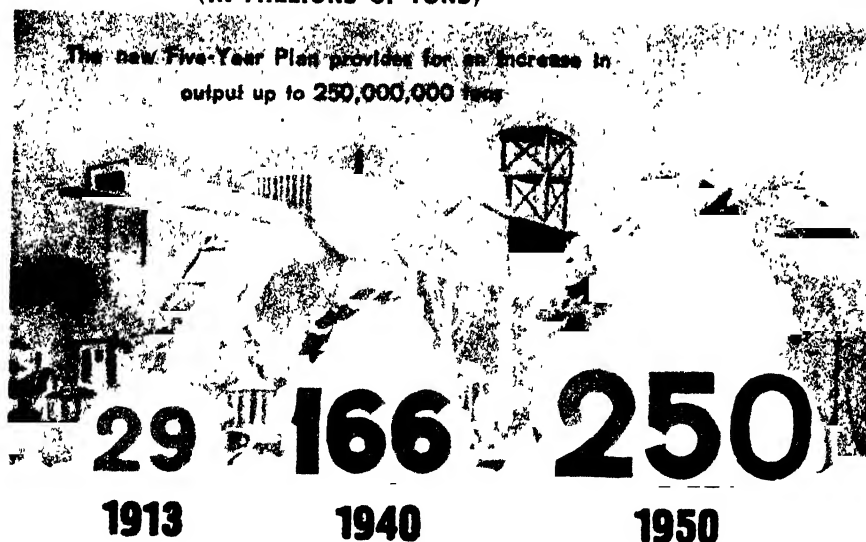
During the last three years of the war, the defence industry annually supplied the Soviet Army with more than 30,000 tanks, self-propelled guns and armoured cars, 40,000 aeroplanes, 120,000 artillery pieces and a colossal quantity of other types of armaments and war materiel.

Relying on the power of socialist industry and the world's most advanced large-scale socialist agriculture, the Soviet people and their heroic army scored a historical victory over German fascism and Japanese imperialism.

The German fascist barbarians inflicted huge losses on the national economy of the U.S.S.R. They completely or partly destroyed or burned 1,710 towns, more than 70,000 villages and more than 6,000,000 buildings. Nearly 25,000,000 people lost their homes. The direct damage inflicted on the U.S.S.R.'s national economy as a result of the destruction of industrial enterprises, collective and state farms, machine and tractor stations, buildings and cultural institutions and so on, amounted to 670,000,000,000 rubles.

COAL MINING IN THE U.S.S.R.

(IN MILLIONS OF TONS)



The new Five-Year Plan provides for an increase in
output up to **250,000,000 tons**

The basic task of the post-war Stalin Five-Year Plan (1946-50), is to reconstruct the devastated districts of the country, restore industry and agriculture to the pre-war level, and considerably surpass this level.

The investments in this new Five-Year Plan have been set at 250,300,000,000 rubles. In 1950 the value of the total industrial output for the whole country will be 205,000,000,000 rubles as against the 138,500,000,000 rubles produced in 1940, i.e., a 48 per cent increase.

The restoration of all the electric power stations, including the Lenin Dnieper Hydroelectric Power Station, will be completed by 1950, while 75 new, big electric power stations will be built. By 1950 the electric power output will reach 22,400,000 kilowatts, doubling the 1940 figure.

During this period 45 blast furnaces, 165 open-hearth furnaces, 15 converters, 90 electric power furnaces, 104 rolling mills and 63 coke batteries will be either restored or built anew and put into operation. This will permit a 35 per cent increase over the pre-war level in the production of metals.

A total of 260 coalpits with a capacity of 101,400,000 tons will be built in the various coal-fields throughout the country. The coal output will reach 250,000,000 tons by 1950, i.e., a 51 per cent increase over the pre-war level.

The machine-building industry will double its output by 1950 as compared with the pre-war figure.

The total number of metal-cutting machine tools in the U.S.S.R. is scheduled to reach 1,300,000 by 1950, i.e., 30 per cent more than the total number of machine tools in the U.S.A. in 1940.

The output of the chemical industry by 1950 will be increased 50 per cent above the pre-war level.

Huge investments will be made during this period in the light, textile, and food industries.

About 60,000,000,000 rubles (2.5 times more than was invested under the first two Five-Year Plans) will be invested in agriculture. Agriculture will get 325,000 tractors with a total capacity of 10,800,000 horse power; 4,500,000,000 rubles worth of machinery as against the 1,900,000,000 rubles worth in the second Five-Year Plan period; 17,000,000 tons of fertilizer, or double the amount of the second Five-Year Plan period. By 1950 the output of agricultural production is expected to surpass the pre-war level by 27 per cent.

The investments in railway construction will amount to 40,100,000,000 rubles. New main lines with a total length of 7,230 kilometres will be laid in various parts of the country.

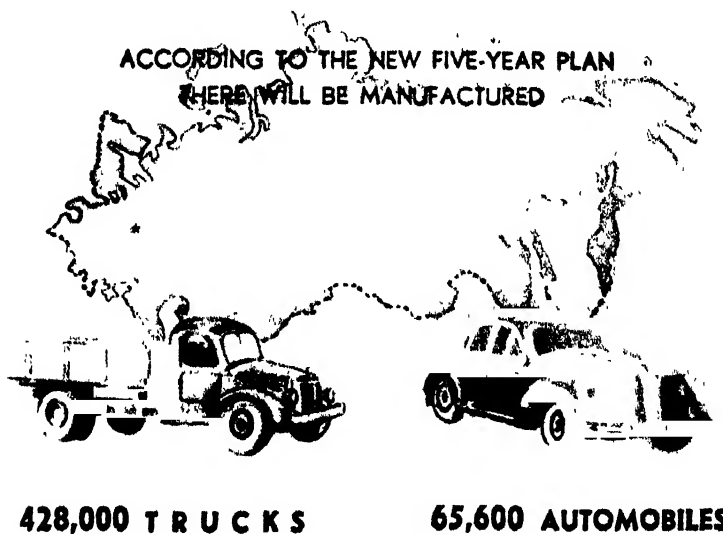
In 1950 the total amount of goods transported will surpass the pre-war figure by 36 per cent.

The productivity of labour in industry in 1950 will increase 36 per cent above the pre-war level.

The Five-Year Plan for 1946-50 envisages the further increase in the material prosperity and cultural level of the Soviet people. Large-scale measures will be carried out in the building of dwelling houses, education, health and the cultural services.

The pre-war welfare of the people will not only be restored by 1950, but the national income will be increased by more than 30 per cent. An abundance of the basic consumer goods will be created in the country.

THE U.S.S.R. AUTOMOBILE TOTAL COMPARED WITH PRE-WAR WILL BE DOUBLED IN 1950





***The Arms
of the Karelo-Finnish Soviet Socialist
Republic***

KARELO-FINNISH SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE KARELO-FINNISH SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC is located in the northwestern part of the Soviet Union, between the White Sea in the north and Lake Ladoga in the south, and occupies a territory of 178,500 square kilometres. The population of the republic numbers about 500,000 (according to the 1939 census) and consists, besides Karelians and Finns, also of Russians. The capital of the Karelo-Finnish S.S.R. is Petrozavodsk.

Before the revolution Karelia was one of the most backward borderlands of tsarist Russia with hardly any industry of its own. Lumbering, in which most of the population was engaged, was primitive and undeveloped. Agriculture was carried on in forest clearings and the crop yield was extremely low. The Karelian peasants and lumberjacks lived in dire poverty, cruelly exploited by the kulaks and middlemen. About ten per cent of the Karelian men and five per cent of the women were literate.

The Great October Socialist Revolution gave the Karelian people their freedom and statehood. The Karelian Autonomous Region, then called the "Karelian Labour Commune" was founded as early as 1920; in 1923 it became the Karelian Autonomous Republic. The Karelo-Finnish S.S.R. was formed on March 31, 1940, becoming a constituent republic of the Soviet Union.

The Karelo-Finnish S.S.R. has vast natural resources. About 70 per cent of its territory is covered with forests containing more than 1,000,000,000 cubic metres of high-quality timber. The peat deposits total 30,000,000,000 cubic metres. The mineral resources include iron, zinc, lead, copper, silver, molybdenum, barytes. All this wealth, which had lain untouched before the revolution, has been placed by the Soviet government at the service of the people.

A sum of 1,092,000,000 rubles has been invested in Karelian industry between 1928 and 1937 under the first two Five-Year Plans. New branches of industry—wood pulp and paper manufacture, the production of pegmatite and mica, shipbuilding, ski-making and others, have arisen. Old enterprises, including the Onega Iron and Steel Works, have been radically reconstructed, the latter increasing its output by 13.5 times in 1939, as compared with 1913.

The gross production of industry in the republic, amounting to 390,000,000 rubles in 1939, exceeded tenfold the pre-revolutionary level.

The timber output in 1939 amounted to 13,600,000 cubic metres, i.e., to eight times as much as the 1913 output. There was a considerable expansion in the mining industry.

The miners of Karelia are proud of the fact that their granite and marble were used in decorating many of the stations of the Moscow subway and that their highest quality marble went to build the Lenin Mausoleum.

Agriculture has made remarkable progress in the Karelo-Finnish S.S.R., growing stronger and moving northward under the collective-farm system. Thirty-two machine and tractor stations have been organized to serve the collective farms. The sown area has expanded with unusual rapidity, almost doubling during the period of 1937-40 alone. The grain yield increased from 0.8 tons per hectare in 1913 to 1.12 tons in 1939; that of potatoes for the same period rose from 6.73 to 10.9 tons per hectare. Cattle breeding has also made great strides.

There were no railways whatever in Karelia before 1915. Now, in addition to the Kirov (Murmansk) Railway line, which joins Leningrad to the port of Murmansk on the Barents Sea, the Karelo-Finnish S.S.R. has two newly-constructed railways: the Petrozavodsk-Suojärvi and Kandalaksha-Kuolajärvi lines. A new waterway—the Stalin White Sea-Baltic Canal, which is 227 kilometres long, runs through the territory of the republic.

The Karelo-Finnish people have gone far in developing their culture, national in form and socialist in content. Universal compulsory elementary education has been introduced in the republic and illiteracy has practically disappeared. As many as 76,000 children attended 526 elementary and secondary schools in 1939. A Karelo-Finnish State University was opened in Petrozavodsk, and the republic now has a teachers' college and 15 technical schools. Several scientific institutions, including the Scientific Research Institute of Culture, scientific research fishing stations and others, have been founded. Before the revolution there was one physician per 10,000 population and only 437 hospital beds in the whole of Karelia. The number of hospital beds increased to 3,000 in 1940. An extensive network of urban and rural maternity homes, crèches and dispensaries for children has been opened. The Karelian people have made great progress in the field of art and now have four theatres, a philharmonic and a symphony orchestra. The literature and the press have developed apace. The two scanty sheets, printed before the revolution in the Russian language, have now given way to 38 newspapers. Several hundred titles with a total printing of 5,100,000 have been published in the republic between 1937 and 1946.

In 1941 the peaceful labour of the Karelian people was disrupted by the German invasion. The fascists destroyed most of the large industrial enterprises of the republic—its wood pulp and paper mills, the Onega Iron and Steel Works and the White Sea-Baltic Canal, burned down half of Petrozavodsk and reduced to ruins the new cities built under the Soviet government—Medvezhyegorsk and Kondopoga.

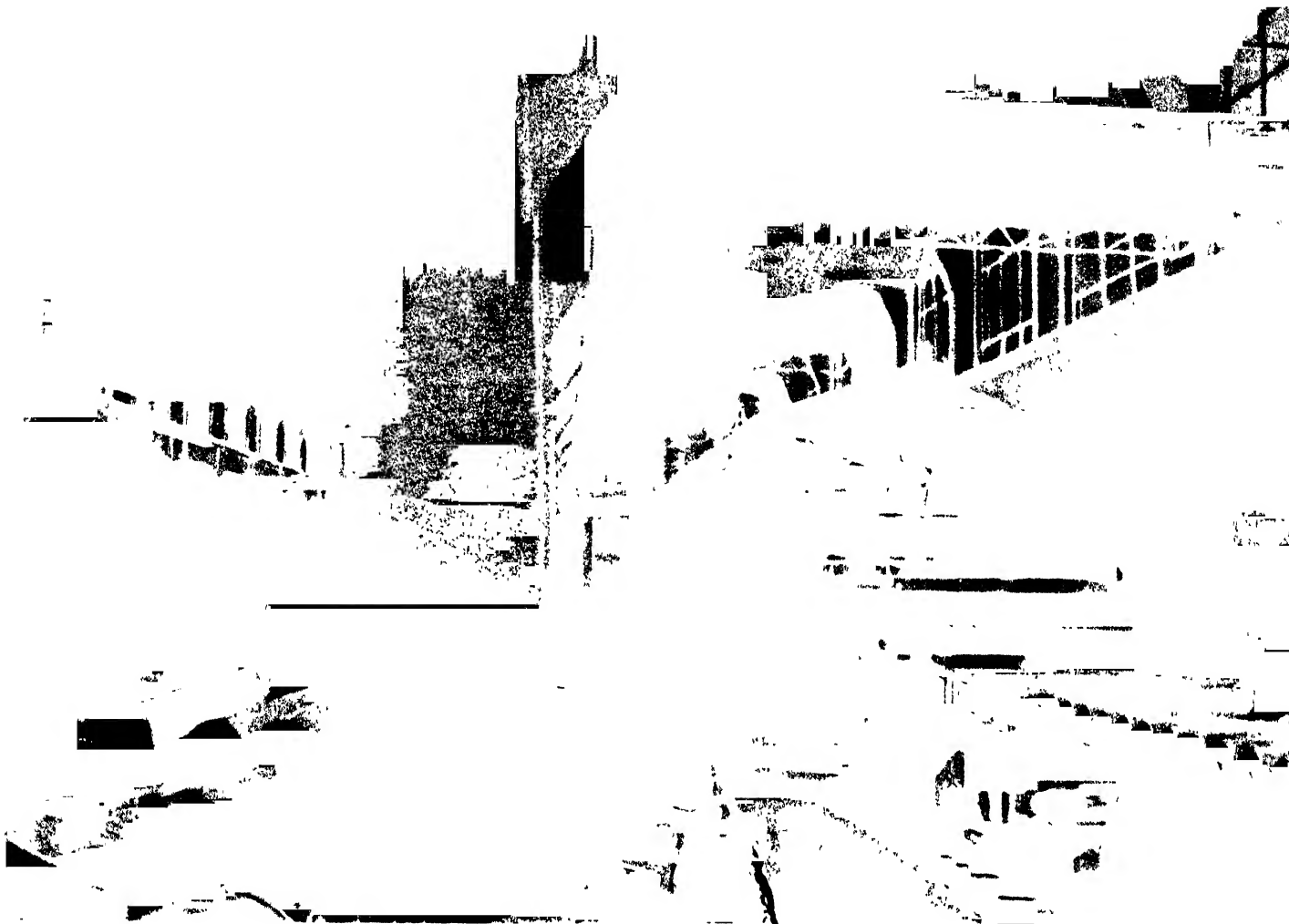
The current Five-Year Plan provides for the investment of 1,600,000,000 rubles in the national economy of the Karelo-Finnish S.S.R. during 1946-50. This will restore the national economy of the republic and make possible its further development. In 1950 the industrial output will exceed the 1940 level by 11 per cent.

The plan contains extensive provisions for the development of the power supply. Electric stations with a capacity of 81,000 kw., including a hydroelectric station with a capacity of 45,000 kw., will be built. In 1950 timbering will increase fivefold as compared with 1945. The export of timber will amount to 11,000,000 cubic metres. Plants for the construction of standard houses are being built. The paper industry is being expanded. By the end of the five-year period its annual production will amount to 142,000 tons of various grades of paper.

The agriculture of the republic will exceed its pre-war level. The head of cattle will be brought to the former number, the yield of the fields will increase and the sown area will be expanded to 134,000 hectares by 1950. The fish catch in 1950 will be doubled as compared with the pre-war figure.

Elaborate plans have been made for the restoration and extension of living accommodations and municipal communal services. A new railroad station, a wharf and a number of beautiful buildings, such as the House of the Government, the House of Communications, an opera and drama theatre, a first class hotel and several cinemas will be built in Petrozavodsk.

The Karelo-Finnish people have launched upon the fulfilment of the fourth Stalin Five-Year Plan with the greatest enthusiasm. The wood pulp mills have been restored and are now in operation; the rehabilitation of the Kondopoga Paper Mill is nearing completion. In the summer of 1946 the White Sea-Baltic Canal was restored and opened to navigation. High quality Karelian timber is again being shipped to all parts of the Soviet Union. The Karelo-Finnish S.S.R. is successfully recovering from the wounds inflicted by the war and is quickly approaching a period of even greater economic and cultural prosperity.



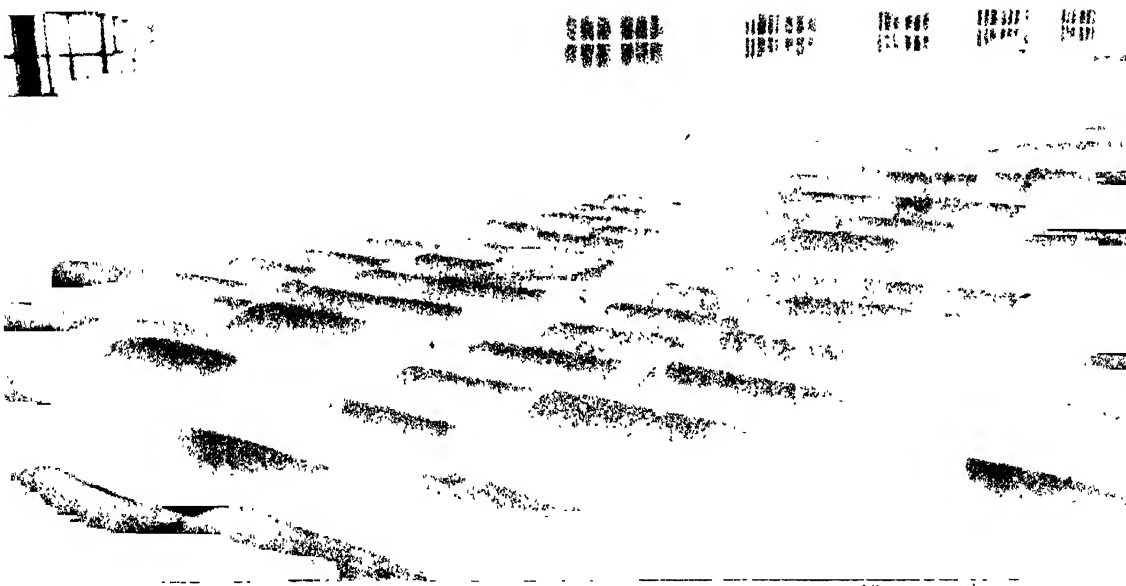
REHABILITATION OF THE KONDOPOGA PAPER MILL

A FISHERMEN'S SETTLEMENT IN ESSALO





Mechanized transport
of timber



The
Segezhsky pulp and
paper mill

The Kantelle State Music
Ensemble of the Karelo-Finnish
S.S.R. Petrozavodsk, 1946





Permit me to propose a toast to science and its progress, and to the health of the men of science.

To the progress of science, of that science which does not fence itself off from the people and does not hold aloof from them, but which is prepared to serve the people and to transmit to them all the benefits of science, and which does not serve the people under compulsion, but voluntarily and willingly.

To the progress of science, of that science which will not permit its old and recognized leaders smugly to invest themselves in the robe of high priests and monopolists of science; which understands the meaning, significance and omnipotence of an alliance between the old scientists and the young scientists; which voluntarily and willingly throws open every door of science to the young forces of our country, and affords them the opportunity of scaling the peaks of science, and which recognizes that the future belongs to the young scientist.

To the progress of science, of that science whose devotees, while understanding the power and significance of the established scientific traditions and ably utilizing them in the interests of science, are nevertheless not willing to be slaves of these traditions; the science which has the courage and determination to smash the old traditions, standards and views when they become antiquated and begin to act as a fetter on progress, and which is able to create new traditions, new standards and new views.

J. V. Stalin





SERGEI VAVILOV

SERGEI VAVILOV

*President of the Academy of Sciences
of the U.S.S.R.*

THE NAME OF SERGEI IVANOVICH VAVILOV, a brilliant physicist and President of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R., is widely known both in his own country and abroad.

Born in Moscow in 1891, he commenced his scientific researches while he was still a student under the well-known Russian physicist, Pyotr Lebedev. When he graduated Moscow University in 1914, he was asked to remain for post-graduate work at the university to prepare for a professorship. Vavilov rejected this offer in protest against the reactionary policy of the tsarist Minister of Education Kasso. World War I broke out and Vavilov was conscripted into the army.

After the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution, Vavilov was able to return to scientific and pedagogic activities. In 1920 the talented physicist became a professor in the Moscow University and within 12 years an academician.

In July 1945 Vavilov was elected President of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R.

Academician Vavilov is famous for his discoveries in physical optics. From 1932 he headed the Pyotr Lebedev Physics Institute and simultaneously (until 1945) directed the work of the State Optical Institute.

Vavilov made great contributions to the development of modern physics. He established a number of basic laws concerning phenomena of luminosity in liquid and hard bodies in relation to their "yield," the period of polarization of luminosity and other properties. Vavilov and his assistants were the first to work out a method of measuring the optical quantum fluctuations of light. In co-operation with P. A. Cherenkov, I. M. Frank and I. E. Romm, Academician Vavilov discovered a new class of visible luminosity due to electrons moving in matter at a speed greater than that of light.

Vavilov is the author of more than 100 scientific works, books and papers dedicated to problems of natural science.

He made the first Russian translation of Newton's *Optics*, to which he added valuable scientific and historical commentaries. His monographs *Isaac Newton* and *Galileo* are widely read. He is the editor of a large number of popular scientific and technical works and of many more erudite publications.

During the Great Patriotic War many optical instruments for war purposes were produced under his direction.

Now that the U.S.S.R. has again gone over to peace production and construction, Soviet science is faced with the solution of many new and big problems.

"Soviet science," Vavilov stated, "must in the shortest time possible provide the people, their towns, industries and farms such scientific results, such technical means as will ensure the uninterrupted construction of Socialist society with the maximum utilization of the country's natural wealth and with the assurance that nobody will dare interfere with this creative work."

Academician Vavilov is a well-known public figure. For a number of years in succession he was elected to the Lenin-grad Soviet of Working People's Deputies and to the Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R. In February 1946 he was elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

"To be a deputy in our country is an honour," he said. "But it is not just an honourable post or position; it entails a great deal of work; it embraces life in all its aspects: from the infinitely small to the integral whole, from the needs of individual man, from the exceptionally difficult problems that sometimes arise in family life, to the biggest problems of State. . . ."

Two Orders of Lenin and the Order of the Red Banner of Labour have been conferred upon Academician Vavilov for his outstanding scientific work. He has been twice awarded a Stalin Prize.

My Work at Present

AS PRESIDENT of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. it is my function to direct its work. Simultaneously, I am also in direct charge of several special departments of the Academy. Besides, I continue the scientific work I have been engaged in for a long time, particularly the study of the problem of luminescence, which belongs to the province of physical optics.

Questions of luminescence have during the last few years transcended the realm of pure abstract problems and, as often happens in science, assumed great practical importance in the national economy. This applies particularly to crystalline phosphorus. Of special interest is the creation of new highly economic light sources, namely, luminescent lamps, which consume only a small fraction of the energy required for incandescent lamps and are correspondingly cheaper, while the light they yield approximates daylight.

But lamps are not the only practical use to which luminescence can be put. For other uses, however, a thorough study of the many aspects of this phenomenon is absolutely indispensable, and it is to this study that my colleagues and I are devoting ourselves.

Another question of present interest is the light produced by X-rays and radium rays. Its study is of value in evolving a theory of luminescence, and it also has a practical angle, the rational preparation of protractedly luminescent substances.

My colleagues and I have been long engrossed in studying the optical properties of compound molecules. We contemplate investigating, for instance, the conditions giving rise to prolonged excitement of molecules, their nature, and the interaction of excited molecules with their environment. Much time is also devoted to the investigation of the laws governing the extinction and prolongation of fluorescence and the influence upon them of external factors. Work on resonance transmission of energy in a medium is being continued. This should yield information on the transformation of the energy of excitement in multi-atomic molecules, and on the connection between these processes and the structure of molecules.

I shall likewise continue to work on problems dealing with philosophy and the history of physics. Furthermore, it is my intention to publish this year a collection of my papers and treatises on this question.

S. Vavilov,

ACADEMICIAN NIKOLAI DMITRIEVICH ZELINSKY, Hero of Socialist Labour, is one of the great chemists now living. His name is closely connected with the scientific study of petroleum and the development of the Soviet oil industry. His work in the field of albumins is also widely known.

In the sphere of physical chemistry Zelinsky is known throughout the world. He invented the first gas mask with a carbon filter and his activated carbon is till today the chief feature of all gas masks.

Academician Zelinsky has been engaged in research and teaching for about sixty years; he has published over 500 research papers.

In addition to his title of Hero of Socialist Labour, Academician Zelinsky has been awarded three Orders of Lenin and two Orders of the Red Banner of Labour. He twice received a Stalin Prize.



NIKOLAI ZELINSKY

SINCE 1884 I have devoted my whole life to chemistry.

I have taught in Moscow University for 53 years; since 1926 I have also worked at the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. I have taught tens of thousands of students: some of them have become scientists, others are prominent in industry. As the years passed a whole school of my closest pupils and assistants grew up around me.

In my work I try to find answers to the questions that arise out of practice. That is how I came to invent my carbon gas mask filter. Now I am working on catalysis. Catalytic reaction is the name given to various chemical metamorphoses caused by certain chemical substances—the catalysts—which do not undergo any change themselves but by their presence cause a redistribution of the atoms of substances with which they are brought into contact.

The methodological and general study of catalytical processes helps us understand and explain chemical reactions which cannot take place without catalysts.

The post-war Five-Year Plan provides for an increased output

of petroleum. This, in turn, provides scientists with a number of new problems. Petroleum is a valuable chemical raw material from which the best aviation spirit, lubricants, explosives and many other articles are made. The list of by-products of petroleum contains several hundred items.

Petroleum hydrocarbons have, during the last few decades, gained considerable importance as raw material for many branches of organic synthesis. However, the methods of synthesis, especially those for the production of various items from hydrocarbons on an industrial scale, have been fully studied only for a comparatively small number of them.

I am still continuing my work on the study of the chemical composition of petroleum, the aromatization of its hydrocarbons, the kinetics of chemical reactions and the changes in the properties of various substances under high and super-high pressures.

N. Zelinsky



VLADIMIR OBRUCHEV

THE STUDY of the incalculable wealth of our country and the exploration of new sources of valuable minerals is one of the most important tasks of Soviet science.

I began my career as a geologist and geographer in 1886, and I have written some 450 scientific works in the course of the last 60 years. These works resulted from my study and observation of Russian nature and her wealth in the course of my numerous journeys across Siberia, Middle and Central Asia.

For the last 15 years I have been devoting myself particularly to two subjects: the history of the geological research of Siberia and the geographical and geological description of Mongolia.

I planned and began my work, *History of Geological Research of Siberia*, half a century ago. In the first four volumes I have annotated the entire literature on the geology, paleontology, mineralogy, geography and the soil science of Siberia beginning with the 18th century, embracing more than 4,500 titles.

The fifth volume of this work deals with the history of geological research of Siberia from 1918 to 1940. I reviewed here more than 7,600 books, pamphlets, articles and notes on the subject. They are given in chronological order for the chief

geographical regions of Siberia. This is a useful work of reference for all those interested in the geology of this vast region of the Soviet Union.

I have also published three volumes under the title of *Geology of Siberia* which earned me a Stalin Prize in 1941.

At present I am writing the *Geology and Geography of Eastern Mongolia* which is a description of a number of regions of that country. The first part of this work consists of a review (with annotations) of all the published geographical and geological literature from the 18th century to 1940, under 580 headings, and also geographical and hydrographical descriptions of the mountainous regions Kentei, Great Khingan, Inshan and the low-lying Gobi Desert. A physical geographical map based on new surveys produced by the Institute of Geography of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. is appended to this work.

Apart from my scientific literary activities I am engaged in the current work of training geologists for scientific work and reviewing scientific literature on geology and geography.

V. Obruchev

ACADEMICIAN VLADIMIR AFANASYEVICH OBRUCHEV was born in 1863. He began his scientific research of Asia as far back as the 1880's. For almost 30 years, from 1886 to 1914, he took part in expeditions organized to study the geology of Asia. But Obruchev was able to realize his bold scientific plans only after the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution. His work *Geology of Siberia* was published in 1927, and this was followed by his *History of Geological Research of Siberia* in five volumes, summarizing the Academician's long years of labour.

From 1921 to 1929 Obruchev headed the Mineral Deposits Faculty of the Moscow Mining Academy. His textbook *Ore Deposits* is a valuable reference book in this field.

Obruchev's scientific researches into the geology of Central Asia represent an entire epoch in the history of geological research in this part of the continent.

Obruchev has written many popular scientific works, which include novels, narratives, tales and articles.

Academician Obruchev is widely known outside the Soviet Union. The title of Hero of Socialist Labour was conferred upon him in 1945 for his outstanding achievements in the development of Soviet geology. He was awarded a Stalin Prize in 1941.

IVAN IVANOVICH MESHCHANINOV, academician, Hero of Socialist Labour, has played a prominent part in developing Soviet philology. His works on the Chaldaic cuneiform inscriptions and on the stadial development of syntax and morphology have earned him a place among the leading scholars.

A pupil of the prominent philologist Nikolai Marr, Meshchaninov has made a great contribution to the study and development of stadial comparative grammar. His works, *New Elements in the Science of Language*, *General Linguistics*, *Parts of the Sentence* and *Parts of Speech*, are of great scientific value.

Ivan Meshchaninov has been twice awarded a Stalin Prize. He is a member of the Presidium of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. and a fellow of the Prague Oriental Institute.

For twelve years he has been the director of the Marr Institute of Language and Thought of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R.

IVAN MESHCHANINOV

THERE ARE about 150 languages in the U.S.S.R. The languages of the peoples of the Soviet Union vary considerably in their structure, and the rules of syntax differ widely. A special study of the syntax and morphology of these languages was necessary to establish their similarities and dissimilarities. I have devoted considerable time and effort to this subject during the past 15 years, and have summarized my conclusions in the book *Parts of the Sentence and Parts of Speech*, which was published in 1945 and earned me a Stalin Prize.

I am now working on a monograph dealing with the verb, the most involved part of speech. The languages of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. serve as the basic material for this work; I expect to complete it in 1947.

I shall follow this up with a study of the various forms

of attributive expression (attribute, condition, adjective, adverb and so on). At the same time I will study the form variety of syntactic word compounds.

Another, no less important, part of my work is the study of the Urartu (Chaldean) language from the oldest written records in the U.S.S.R. They have been partly preserved in the Armenian S.S.R. The slabs on which these hieroglyphics are inscribed are estimated to be 2,700 years old.

I am also very interested in another ancient language, the Median, the study of which is closely connected with the ancient history of Azerbaijan. Research work in this language is closely connected with the study of the culture of Azerbaijan and Daghestan.

I. Meshchaninov



ALEXANDER MIKULIN

I BEGAN TO BUILD engines while I was still a student; in 1912-13 I made the first internal combustion engine of my own design in the workshops of the Kiev Polytechnical Institute.

My uncle, Nikolai Zhukovsky, the father of Russian aviation, greatly influenced my future activities. With a group of other students under his direction, I worked on the creation of the country's first laboratory of aero-dynamics.

During the First World War I helped design the first Russian tank, the first Russian aeroplane engine AM-VS and the first bomb-releasing apparatus.

After the Great October Socialist Revolution I took part in organizing the automobile transport. In 1923 I entered the Scientific Auto-Machine Institute where I once again occupied myself with aeroplane engines. There, in 1929-30, I designed the first powerful Soviet aeroplane engine, the AM-34, which successfully passed government tests and was accepted for the Red Army.

I am ably assisted in the further development of engines of the AM family by the strong collective of our designing engineers. Almost simultaneously with the AM-34 we started the serial production of the hydroplane engine GAM-34, which was used in torpedo motor boats, and also designed a number

ALEXANDER ALEXANDROVICH MIKULIN, academician, Hero of Socialist Labour, is one of the leading Soviet aeroplane engine designers. He has four times been awarded Stalin Prizes. In 1930 he built the first powerful Soviet-made aeroplane engine, the AM-34. The powerful and durable engines that have been designed in Mikulin's workshop are justly famous. Many Soviet aeroplanes have been equipped with these engines, including the planes that carried Chkalov and Gromov on their heroic record-making flights across the North Pole and to the United States. During the Patriotic War, Academician Mikulin's engines powered MIG fighter planes and the Stormovik IL-2.

Mikulin has been decorated by the government with nine Orders and four Medals for his outstanding services in designing Soviet aeroplane engines.

of other aeroplane engines. The latter include the engine AM-34-FN, which was fitted into the giant aeroplane *Maxim Gorky*. The plane, piloted by Gromov, which established the world long-distance record was equipped with our engine, as was the plane that carried Chkalov, Baidukov and Belyakov to America.

The MIG fighter planes were equipped with the AM-35 and AM-35-A engines during the Great Patriotic War, while the famous Ilyushin Stormoviks IL-2 and IL-4 were equipped with AM-38 and AM-38-F engines, which have a powerful pick-up and are extremely fast for low-altitude flying.

The range of power of the AM family of motors has already been increased fourfold and will continue to grow in the course of further development.

The Bolshevik Party and the government and especially Joseph Vissarionovich Sta'in take a personal interest in our work. In a personal conversation with me, Stalin probed into all the main problems connected with the further improvement of the battle qualities of the engines and gave purposeful directions contributing to the correct and productive development of the research and designing work of the group headed by me.

A. Mikulin

NIKOLAI TSITSIN

*Vice President of the Lenin
All-Union Academy of Agri-
cultural Sciences and deputy
to the Supreme Soviet of the
U.S.S.R.*



NIKOLAI TSITSIN

VASSILIEVICH TSITSIN was born in 1898 in Saratov into a poor peasant family. He began to work at the age of 14; he worked as a packer in a factory, railway platelayer and telegraph operator.

During the Civil War and foreign intervention, Tsitsin fought on the Eastern Front in the ranks of the defenders of the young Soviet Republic.

In 1923, after graduating with honours from the Lenin Workers' Faculty, he entered the Saratov Agricultural Institute. Upon graduating from this institute, the young agronomist began scientific work in the Grain Institute of the South-Eastern U.S.S.R.

In 1932 Tsitsin was a scientific worker in the Siberian Grain Institute in Omsk, and five years later he became the director of this institute. Here the scientist conducted experiments on the creation of perennial wheat by crossing wild couch-grass with summer and winter wheat.

Stalin followed Tsitsin's work with great interest. In 1935, in a conversation with the scientist, Stalin said: "Be bolder in your experiments, do not be afraid of mistakes, we will support you."

The support of the Communist Party and the government inspired the scientist. His persevering labours bore fruit. Tsitsin successfully produced hitherto unknown annual and perennial wheat-couch-grass hybrids that are able to resist

frost, drought and fungus diseases. The quality of the flour and bread produced from these grains place them among the best in the world.

Tsitsin's hybrids have been transferred from test plots to collective farms.

The winter and summer types of hybrids yield from 0.5 to 0.55 ton of grain per hectare, while the number of perennial types of wheat yield a harvest two or three years in succession.

Wide prospects have been opened for the further development of agriculture by Tsitsin's scientific labours in cross-breeding wheat, rye and barley with Elymus. The first hybrids have already been produced.

The name of Nikolai Tsitsin is well known in both the Soviet Union and abroad.

In 1938 he was appointed Vice President of the Lenin All-Union Academy of Agricultural Sciences and became a member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. in 1939. He was one of the organizers and directors of the All-Union Agricultural Exhibition where the achievements of agriculture in the U.S.S.R. were demonstrated.

The Soviet government highly values the services of academician Tsitsin and has awarded him three Orders of Lenin and the Order of the Red Banner of Labour. He has also been awarded a Stalin Prize. Tsitsin is a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

VLADIMIR FILATOV

*Ophthalmologist, member
of the Academy of Sciences
of the Ukrainian S.S.R. and
of the All-Union Academy of
Medical Sciences*

VLADIMIR FILATOV

VLADIMIR PETROVICH FILATOV, the Soviet ophthalmologist, is world famous. He was born in 1875 and graduated from the Medical Faculty of Moscow University at the age of 22. After working five years in Moscow clinics, Filatov went to Odessa, where in 1911 he was appointed head of the Chair and Director of the Eye Clinic of the Odessa Medical Institute.

Filatov has devoted half a century to medicine and was the inventor of a new method of grafting pieces of cornea into the eyes of the blind in cases when blindness is the result of opacity of the cornea, for instance, a walleye, scar of the cornea and so forth. The surgical instrument he designed eliminates the danger of damaging the crystalline lens during operations. The scientist has so simplified the technique of this operation that any surgeon can now perform it. More than 80 per cent of these operations yielded excellent results: the blind began to see. Filatov proved that it is possible to graft a cornea from the eye of a deceased person, and his practice has shown that after three or four days' preservation at a low temperature, the cornea acquires curative qualities. In the treatment of blindness, Soviet ophthalmology, thanks to Filatov, has taken a leading place in world science.

Vladimir Filatov's name is also linked with original methods of treating chronic ulcers, scars and sluggish wounds by grafting pieces of tissue removed from other parts of the body and seasoned by exposure to cold. The method is based on the theory that live tissues, when

under unfavourable conditions, give rise to "resistance matter" (biogenical stimulants). Pieces of flesh, mucous membrane and cartilage that have been exposed to cold and transferred to the body of a sick person, speedily heal chronic ulcers, burns, and wounds that stubbornly refuse to heal and also such serious skin diseases as lupus and skin leishmaniosis. "Tissue therapy" proved successful in the treatment of laryngeal ailments, ailments of the lymphatic glands and certain disorders of the peripheral nervous systems.

Vladimir Filatov is the author of 265 scientific works and has contributed much that is new and original to medical science. A member of the Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian S.S.R. and the All-Union Academy of Medical Sciences, he has been awarded a Stalin Prize for his outstanding work in cornea grafting and tissue therapy. The Soviet government has conferred the Order of Lenin, Order of the Red Banner of Labour and the Order of the Patriotic War upon the venerable scientist. He carries the title of Merited Worker of Science.

Filatov is Director of the Odessa Ophthalmology Research Institute, Chairman of the Ophthalmology Section of the Learned Council of the Ministry of Health of the Ukrainian S.S.R., Chairman of the Council of Professors of the Odessa Medical Institute and an honorary member of many scientific societies.

Vladimir Filatov is popular among Soviet people. In February 1947 he was elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Ukrainian S.S.R.



DMITRI MAKSUTOV

Doctor of Technical Sciences and Director
of the Laboratory of Astronomical Optics
at the Leningrad State Optics Institute

PROFESSOR DMITRI MAKSUTOV, who was born into the family of a sailor in Odessa, is now fifty-one years old. He took an interest in astronomy and optics while he was still a child and, with the aid of reflector telescopes that he made himself, he observed the movements of the planets. At fifteen he became a member of the Russian Astronomical Society, and from that time onwards he dedicated himself to astronomical optics, the most complicated branch of the optical industry, where every achievement, every invention is a great event.

At present Dmitri Maksutov is director of the astronomical optics laboratory of the State Optical Institute of Leningrad. He is widely known for his new and precise methods of the study of optical surfaces and for the invention of a number of original optical instruments.

Maksutov has perfected the shadow method of research into optical systems and evolved a method for determining the optical properties of glass prior to its fine processing. He has designed and built an apparatus for photographing the stomach, a microscopic needle for examining living tissue in the human organism and a number of other instruments. He has also designed a great number of astronomical mirrors and object-lenses, among which is the 820 mm. object-lens for the Pulkovo observatory refractor. Maksutov invented an aberrational mirror telescopes of a new type, and recently he has invented a new catadioptrical meniscus system.

Maksutov's meniscus telescope marks great progress in the design of optical instruments. Its originality lies in the fact that all the optical surfaces are spherical. A concave-convex achromatic lens-menisc lies in front of the main spherical mirror. The system is free from the imperfections of ordinary refractors and reflectors, its aberration is 40 times lower, while the chromatic aberration is 500-700 times less than in a double-lens achromatic refractor. The meniscus telescope has a great light power, does not require a long barrel and can adequately replace the bulky instruments of the past.

A large number of meniscus telescopes for school use have been placed on sale recently. These have a mirror of 70 mm. or 100 mm. in diameter and give excellent images magnified to 50, 100 and 140 diameters.

Dmitri Maksutov was awarded the Stalin Prize in 1946 for his invention of the meniscus telescope; in the same year he was elected corresponding member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R.



EVGENI TAREYEV

Professor at the Malaria and Medical
Parasitology Institute of the Academy of
Medical Sciences of the U.S.S.R.

PROFESSOR EVGENI TAREYEV (born in 1895 in Pskov) is a well-known Soviet scientist and a corresponding member of the Academy of Medical Sciences of the U.S.S.R.

After graduating from the Medical Faculty of Moscow University in 1917, he specialized in the treatment of malaria. For many years he made an all-round study of the reaction of synthetic preparations of acrichine and plasmocide. He worked out effective combined doses of these drugs, given for a radical treatment of malaria. He proved that malaria is not a chronic disease recurring for decades, as was formerly thought, but that it lasts only from one and a half to two years.

He showed how to differentiate between malaria and sicknesses that are very similar to it, and refuted the erroneous view of doctors on so-called "latent malaria." "You cannot diagnose 'malaria' if there are no plasmodium parasites in the blood," he said.

Professor Tareyev also conducted researches into the more dangerous forms of malaria—so-called comatose malaria accompanied by serious mental disorders, and lightning malaria in children. The new methods of treating these dangerous forms of malaria that he developed have yielded excellent results.

After conducting more than 20,000 tests on the blood of malaria patients, Soviet scientists were the first to publish a detailed description of the bio-chemical changes that occur in the patient.

Many millions of rubles are spent annually by the Soviet government on anti-malaria measures. Professor Tareyev's researches have helped greatly to reduce the number of malaria cases in the Soviet Union.

The Malaria and Medical Parasitology Institute of the Academy of Medical Sciences in Moscow, where Evgeni Tareyev is working, has become a real headquarters in the war against the disease. Co-operating with 11 similar institutes in the constituent republics of the Union, the Malaria Institute in Moscow directs the activities of 2,000 anti-malaria stations.

Professor Tareyev is the author of 150 scientific works, many of which have been translated into foreign languages. He summed up his rich 25-years' experience in his fundamental work, *Clinics of Malaria*, which was published in 1945. This valuable contribution to medical science earned him a Stalin Prize.



BORIS LAZARENKO



NATALYA LAZARENKO

NATALYA AND BORIS LAZARENKO, husband and wife, are young electrical engineers and are both Stalin Prize winners. Boris Lazarenko was born in 1910 and his wife a year later. Their friendship began while they were still at school, and they sat for the examinations and entered the Chemical Faculty of the Moscow University together. Graduating with honours in 1935 they began to work in the All-Union Electro-Technical Institute.

Here, in the laboratories, their friendship grew and matured. They collaborated in finding a method to fight against electrical erosion — the eating away of contacts by electric sparks during the switching on and off of electric current. They established that the intensity of this phenomenon can be regulated: they could bring it down to zero or, vice versa, bring it up so that the spark would resemble a miniature lightning and dissolve metal crystals.

The researchers arrived at an unexpected conclusion: electro-erosion can be utilized for machining metals or alloys without a cutting tool. For this it is necessary to direct a concentrated electric impulse to a definite place on the surface of the metal.

The Lazarenkos conducted hundreds of experiments to find a solution. A steel ball suspended by an extremely thin brass wire can be seen in Lazarenko's laboratory. The aperture punched in it by this wire is hardly noticeable. One can also see how a tin disc

cuts plates of super-hard alloys against which the best instruments "break their teeth."

The small electric-powered machines constructed by the young researchers cut slits of any dimensions, easily cut the most durable armour plate and engrave inscriptions and pictures. It is known that it is impossible to mill a slot that follows a crooked or an eccentrically curved line. The electric sparks however make complicated slots and channels in metal in any direction. The method of cutting with the help of the "spark drill" is extremely simple. The handling of an intricate machine tool demands high skill, but now the sparks make this work almost automatic. The underlying importance of the invention of the young engineers is that metal working has been transformed from a mechanical to an electrical process.

There is no doubt that machining by means of electric sparks will in the near future occupy an important place in the machine shop beside the most up-to-date multi-tool and multi-spindle machines. The new method of machining metal will mean a great increase in factory production, will lower electricity consumption, cut down on factory floor-space and permit a worker of average skill to perform intricate tasks.

Metal machining, one of the most important processes in the engineering industry, has been enriched by a brilliant invention for which Natalya and Boris Lazarenko won a Stalin Prize in 1946.



ABRAM ALIKHANOV



ARTEMI ALIKHANOV

TWO BROTHERS ALIKHANOV are young but well-known Soviet physicists. The elder, Abram, is a member, and the younger, Artemi, a corresponding member, of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R.; both are also members of the Academy of Sciences of the Armenian S.S.R.

The brothers, Abram, born in 1904, and Artemi, born in 1908, are the sons of a veteran engine driver on the Transcaucasian Railway. While they were still at school, they became interested in chemistry and built a small laboratory at home. After graduating middle school, Abram entered the Faculty of Chemistry, Tbilisi Polytechnic School. The youth, however, quickly realized that his calling was physics, and upon reaching 20 years of age went to Leningrad where he entered the Physics and Mechanics Faculty of the Polytechnic Institute. Several years later when he had passed his examinations, he was asked to remain and work in the X-ray laboratory of the institute.

Artemi followed his brother to Leningrad. While still a student of the Physics and Mathematics Faculty of the University he likewise decided to dedicate himself to physics. In 1930 the two brothers started their joint work in experimental physics, choosing the atomic nucleus and cosmic rays as their speciality.

In 1942, on the summit of Mount Alagez in Armenia, the Alikhanov brothers built a well-equipped laboratory with a powerful permanent magnet, and here they are now engaged in researches on cosmic rays.

In the summer the brothers conduct observations and experiments the material for which they themselves evolve and prepare in the Physics Institute in Moscow.

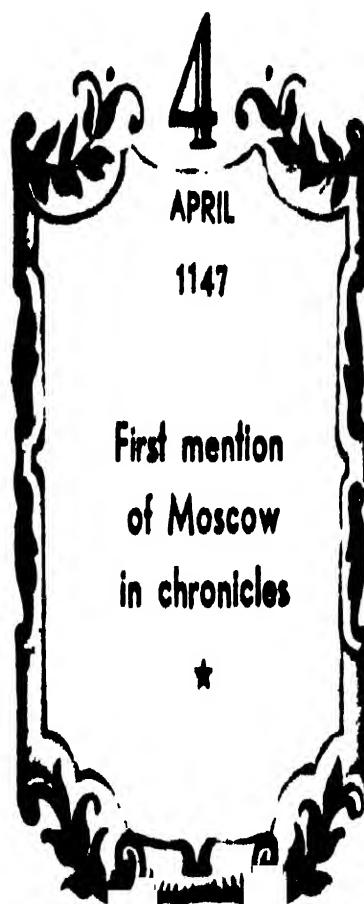
The brothers have made many new discoveries concerning the composition of cosmic rays, which proved to be much more complicated than was generally thought. The brothers discovered some new primary particles. These particles are found with both positive and negative charges and their mass is greater than that of the mesotron while the mass of some is close to that of the proton.

The brothers Alikhanov have made an important contribution to the study of the phenomenon of radioactivity. They discovered that in several instances during the natural radioactive transformation of the atom, apart from the negatively charged electrons, the atom also radiates positively charged electrons. The Alikhanovs have established the velocity of electrons projected from various radioactive elements, and have defined and explained the laws governing the changes in these velocities. Their works have been translated into foreign languages.

Abram and Artemi Alikhanov, outstanding amongst Soviet physicists studying the atomic nucleus, have been awarded Stalin Prizes for their valuable scientific achievements. Both brothers have been decorated with Orders of the Soviet Union.

Painting by A. Vasnetsov

MOSCOW IN THE 18TH CENTURY



MOSCOW—THE CRADLE OF THE RUSSIAN STATE

THE FIRST MENTION OF MOSCOW to be found in the historical records dates back to the year 1147. In that year Prince Yuri Dolgoruky of Rostov and Suzdal wrote, inviting Prince Svyatoslav of Chernigov: "Come to me, brother, to Moscow." The two princes met in Moscow on April 4, 1147.

In 1154, the first small fortified township was built on the high ground at the confluence of the Moscow and Neglinnaya rivers.

Moscow was in those days merely a small frontier post of the Rostov and Suzdal principality. In 1237 it fell under the rule of the Tatars, and for a long time after there is no reference to it in the records. It reappears only towards the close of the 13th century—this time to become firmly established as the foremost of Russian towns.

The 14th and 15th centuries saw the rise of Russia as a national state, with Moscow, situated in the heart of the Russian territories, assuming ever-growing strategic and economic importance.

The first independent Moscow ruler was the younger son of Alexander Nevsky, Prince Daniil (1265-1303). His son, Ivan Kalita (1304-1341), received a license from the Tatar khans entitling him to rule as Grand Prince; under him, Moscow also became the permanent residence of the Metropolitan of "all the Russias."

Compelled to accept the overlordship of the Tatars, Ivan Kalita, clever and cunning, used them too for his own ends of strengthening the Moscow principality.

Kalita founded a new fortress in Moscow, which subsequently came to be called the Kremlin. Around the Kremlin, in what was known as "Kitaigorod," there grew up the "Great Borough," with its busy "Great Road" and Moscow River quay.

By the middle of the 14th century, Moscow was already one of Russia's leading towns. Under Kalita's grandson, Grand Prince Dmitri Donskoi, the wood of the Kremlin walls gave way to more lasting stuff. Dmitri's new fortress was built of white stone, and this was how the city came to be known by its historical appellation of "White-Stone Moscow."

The town was spreading out too. Across the river from the Great Borough, a whole new district, called Zarechye (now Zamoskvorechye), sprang up. Moscow was growing into a wealthy and bustling city where Greek and Italian merchants came to trade and the speech of many lands was heard.

Moscow's position as the foremost city of Russia was finally consolidated in 1380, when Dmitri Donskoi led the Russian forces to a decisive victory over the Tatars at Kulikovo Field. It was Moscow that started Russia's liberation from the Tatar yoke.

The role of Moscow in uniting the people of Russia became especially marked towards the close of the 15th century. From then on, the country's whole history has been inseparably bound up with it.

By this time, Moscow was the largest city not only of Russia, but of all Eastern Europe. Some remarkable building work was done under Ivan III and his successors. In place of the old "White-Stone" Kremlin, a new Kremlin was built, with far more massive walls and towers. This new Kremlin was the work of Russian and Italian architects. The Uspensky

Cathedral, for example, was built by the Italian architect Aristotle Fioravanti after the style of the 12th-century cathedral at Vladimir on the Klyazma River. The Blagoveshchensky Cathedral, on the other hand, was the work of Russian builders.

It was under Ivan III and his successor, Vassili III—in the early half of the 16th century—that Moscow became the capital of the Moscow state. The Moscow Grand Princes now styled themselves "rulers of all the Russias."

Under Ivan IV, in commemoration of the conquest of Kazan, two fine Russian master-builders—Barma and Postnik—erected the Cathedral of Pokrov, or St. Basil's Cathedral, as it subsequently came to be called.

The country's first printing press was set up in Moscow; it was here that the first Russian printer, Ivan Fyodorov, brought out *The Apostles* in 1564, and the *Breviary* a little later.

There were severe trials in store for Moscow during the "Troubled Times" of the early 17th century, when the city fell under foreign domination. The fight to free Moscow became identified in the Russian people's minds with the struggle for their national independence. The popular levy, headed by two great Russian patriots, Minin and Pozharsky, routed the Polish invaders who had entrenched themselves in the Kremlin.

Moscow was witness of the major political events in the history of Russia. It was in Moscow that the Zemski Sobor, or the National Assembly, decided great matters of state, it was here that ambassadors came from foreign lands, and the tsars were crowned and the patriarchs inaugurated. There were furious upheavals in Moscow, too, during popular rebellions and the mutinies of the Streltzi.

Early in the 18th century, the official capital was moved to St. Petersburg, but the capital of olden times remained the country's throbbing heart. In 1755, the first Russian university was founded in Moscow, at the instancy of Mikhail Lomonosov, the brilliant Russian scientist and scholar—and it became a fount of learning for the entire country.

Bitter tribulation came to Moscow with the war of 1812. But its spirit was unbroken. Rather than surrender their beloved city to Napoleon, Russian patriots set it ablaze, and the greater part of it was destroyed in the conflagration. From the fires of the people's war Moscow emerged invigorated and with strength increased. In the cultural life of the 19th century it held a position of honour; as before, it was here that most of the things now and vital for the country had their beginning. Pushkin and Lermontov, Gogol and Griboyedov, those great Russian poets and writers, lived and worked in Moscow, and so did the architect Vassili Bazhenov, Vassili Surikov, the painter, and others equally illustrious. The revolutionary democrats Vissarion Bolinsky and Alexander Herzen received their schooling at the University of Moscow. The Moscow Maly, or Little, Theatre, where the great actor Mikhail Shchepkin played, became the school of the realistic trend in the Russian theatre. Leo Tolstoy and Anton Chekhov wrote in Moscow many of the works that made their names immortal.

The entire cultural history of the Russian people is bound up with the history of Moscow, which was truly the cradle of Russian national culture and of Russia's statehood.

MUSIC FLOURISHES IN THE U.S.S.R.

IN 1908 SEVENTEEN-YEAR-OLD Sergei Sergeyevich Prokofieff made his first public appearance playing his own pianoforte compositions.

Sergei Prokofieff graduated from the St. Petersburg Conservatory where he studied under composers Anatoli Lyadov and Nikolai Rimsky-Korsakov.

He has written numerous compositions in various genres: the operas—*Semyon Kotko*, *Duenna* and *War and Peace*, the ballets—*Romeo and Juliet* and *Cinderella*, music for the motion pictures *Lieutenant Kizhe*, *Alexander Nevsky*, *Ivan Grozny*, the cantatas—*Zdravitsa*, *Alexander Nevsky*, the Russian Overture, the Second Violin Concerto, the Fifth Symphony, the Symphonic Suite *Victory*,

the Second Quartet, three piano sonatas, a sonata for flute, violin and piano, etc.

The humanist traits (*The Ugly Duckling*, *Old Grandmother's Tales*) and organic bonds with national art traditions revealed themselves with particular force in the mature master, who composed the Fifth Symphony, the opera *War and Peace*, a few piano sonatas, and the flute and violin sonatas during the Patriotic War.

Sergei Prokofieff, Merited Worker of Art of the R.S.F.S.R., has been awarded Stalin Prizes four times—for his music to the film *Ivan Grozny*, for the Seventh Piano Sonata, the Fifth Symphony, and the ballet *Cinderella*.

SHOSTAKOVICH, DMITRI DMITRIEVICH, the Soviet composer, was born in 1906.

His First Symphony, written in 1925, revealed the great talent of the young composer. Since then Dmitri Shostakovich has written his famous Fifth Symphony, the Sixth Symphony, and the 1940 Quintet for which he was awarded a Stalin Prize.

Shostakovich's Seventh Symphony, written in besieged Leningrad

in 1941, was also awarded a Stalin Prize. This symphony is imbued with the pathos of struggle and imminent victory. In 1944 Dmitri Shostakovich wrote a Trio for which he was awarded another Stalin Prize.

The celebrated composer has been awarded the Order of Lenin and the Order of the Red Banner.

ARAM KHACHATURYAN was born in Tbilisi, Georgia, in 1904; his father was a bookbinder. From early childhood he was very fond of the spirited dance rhythm and the magnificent beauty of the songs and music of the Transcaucasian peoples whose folklore became his customary language. His music is always fresh, beautiful and original.

Khachaturyan began studying the theory of musical composition in 1926. His works include many diminutive vocal and instrumental lyrics but his real field is that of the big composition conceived on broad lines. One of his best compositions is the ballet *Gyané*, depicting life on an Armenian collective farm.

Symphonic music occupies a prominent place in the list of his works. Most popular of his symphonic works are his *Poem to Stalin*, written for a choir to the words of Mirza Bairamov, the Azerbaijan folk bard, and his Second Symphony, written during the Patriotic War. Three of the composer's concertos can also be placed amongst his symphonic gems—one each for the piano, violin and cello.

Aram Khachaturyan has been awarded the title of Merited Worker of Art of the R.S.F.S.R. and of the Armenian S.S.R. He is the recipient of three Stalin Prizes—for *Gyané*, the Violin Concerto, and the Second Symphony.

SOVIET MUSIC

IN THE SOVIET UNION music is being developed on a wide scale and in various forms. The well planned system of musical education, the mass character of musical enlightenment, the state support of the creative activities of composers and musicians, the encouragement, on a national scale, of amateurs in music, singing and dancing—all this facilitates the growth of musical culture in the republics of the Soviet Union.

Soviet composers are continuing the glorious traditions of Russian classical music as represented by the great composers Mikhail Glinka, Alexander Borodin, Modest Moussorgsky, Nikolai Rimsky-Korsakov and Peter Chaikovsky. These are the traditions of a deep national character in creative art, the extensive employment of national melodies and high ideals in art reflecting in a musical form the real life of the people and mankind's best hopes.

The compositions of modern Soviet composers are extremely popular among the U.S.S.R.'s multi-national population. The names of Sergei Prokofiev, Dmitri Shostakovich, Nikolai Myaskovsky, Aram Khachaturyan and Dmitri Kabalevsky are also well known beyond the borders of the Soviet Union.

Sergei Prokofiev, the brilliant master-innovator, has written compositions in all genres: violin, cello and piano concertos, ballets, operas, symphonies and chamber music. His work draws inspiration from folk sources and is highly optimistic in character.

Dmitri Shostakovich's talent is vividly expressed in his symphonies, his Fifth, Seventh (Leningrad) and Eighth Symphonies which have won universal acclaim.

Russian classical symphony music is continued and developed in Nikolai Myaskovsky's twenty-five symphonies—a great contribution to the world treasure-house of musical art.

The talent of Aram Khachaturyan, with its national colour, richness of temperament and feeling, is fully reflected in the composer's two symphonies, in his piano, violin and cello concertos and in the ballet *Gaiane*.

Dmitri Kabalevsky, composer of the operas *Master from Clamecy* and *Under Fire*, is also deeply national in his compositions. This trend is clearly expressed in his Second Symphony, two piano sonatas, twenty-four preludes for the piano, and his Second String Quartet.

Besides the above-mentioned musicians there are several hundred others in the Soviet Union, among them the older Soviet composers Sergei Vassilenko and Rheingold Gliere, and U. Shaporin, N. Popov, V. Muradeli, V. Shebalin, L. Knipper, M. Koval, A. Alexandrov and N. Chemberji whose operas, symphonies and quartets are constantly performed on the stage and are broadcast over the radio.

The Russian people have always loved songs, and many songs written by Soviet composers—A. Alexandrov, V. Zakharov, I. Dunayevsky, D. Pokrass, V. Solovyov-Sedoi, A. Novikov, M. Blanter and others—have become popular national songs.

Music flourishes in the national republics of the U.S.S.R., even in those republics which in tsarist times were considered culturally backward. Lev Revutsky, Boris Lyatoshinsky, Philip Kozitsky, Mikhail Verikovsky and Andrei Shtogarenko are composing operas and chamber music in the Ukraine, a republic which has always been distinguished for its high musical culture. The operas of the Byelorussian composers Anatoli Bogatyrev and Evgeni Tikotsky are well known. There are several distinguished composers in Georgia like Andrei Balanchivadze and Shalva Mshvelidze; in Armenia—Aro Stepanyan and Alexander Dolukhanov; in Azerbaijan—Usur Gadjiybekov and Kara-Karaev; in Estonia—Eugene and

William Kapp; in Latvia—Yakov and Joseph Medinsh, Anatole Lepin and Alfred Kalnins.

The Union of Soviet Composers, which has more than 900 members, holds periodical congresses and conferences. The Union has its own publishing house and sponsors concerts.

Musical standards are very high in the Soviet Union. The periodical competitions for pianists, violinists, vocalists and conductors permit the most gifted ones to come into the limelight and stimulate the further development of their innate talent. Soviet pianists and violinists have made a number of successful appearances at international competitions. The Soviet musical school is proud of such pedagogue-pianists of the older generation as A. Goldenweiser, K. Igumnov, H. Neuhaus and S. Feinberg, and of the talented younger players L. Oborin, V. Sofronitsky, E. Gilels, S. Richter, V. Merzhanov and others. Violinists such as D. Oistrakh and cellists such as S. Knushevitsky, M. Rastropovich and D. Shafran enjoy well-deserved fame.

The young generation of highly talented conductors includes E. Mravinsky, K. Ivanov and N. Rakhlin. Soviet orchestras are perfecting their art under the leadership of these conductors and the conductors of the older generation, N. Golovanov, A. Gauk and A. Orlov.

The U.S.S.R. has always been famous for its choirs. It is sufficient to mention such world renowned ensembles as the State Chorus of Russian Songs, led by one of the best choirmasters in the U.S.S.R., Alexander Svoshnikov; the Soviet Army Song and Dance Ensemble, founded and trained by the brilliant choirmaster and composer, the late Alexander Alexandrov, and the State Choir named after the famous collector of folk songs, Mitrofan Pyatnitsky, led by Zakharov and Kasmun. In addition to these there are many choirs both amongst the Russians and the many other nationalities of the Soviet Union.

Musical art in the U.S.S.R. reaches young and old; musical enlightenment is spread through numerous channels. The State Philharmonic organizes symphonic, choir and chamber music concerts. Lectures on musical themes are delivered in all cities of the Soviet Union. Thirty-six opera theatres in the country produce classical and modern operas and ballets. Operas and concerts are broadcast over the radio and so are the best compositions of Russian and world classical and modern composers. State quartets popularize chamber music in the country. Finally music culture is spread by a widely developed network of amateur musical groups, choirs and orchestras which number tens of thousands with a membership of hundreds of thousands.

One can judge the scope of musical education in the U.S.S.R. from the following:

Sixty thousand children are studying at 401 music schools, where the usual school courses are taught in addition to music subjects. For especially talented children there are 16 high schools that are connected with the conservatories. These schools have over 4,000 pupils. Nearly 17,000 teen-aged students attend 109 special music schools. There are about 6,000 students who receive stipends and live in the hostels of the 22 conservatories that specialize in various fields of music. Furthermore, there are special children's vocal schools, the best of which is in Moscow. They train future choirmasters.

The development of musical culture receives permanent attention from the Soviet government and is further stimulated by the annual award of Stalin Prizes to the authors of outstanding musical compositions of various genres.

THE BEETHOVEN STATE QUARTET

IN 1923 Vadim Borisovsky, Dmitri Tsyganov, Vassili Shirinsky and Sergei Shirinsky were graduated from the Moscow Conservatory of Music with the highest honours; their names were engraved on the marble "Roll of Honour" of that institution. All of them were appointed Fellows of the Conservatory and later became professors of music.

In the year of their graduation the young musicians formed a string quartet which was then known as the Moscow Conservatory Quartet—Tsyganov, first violin, Vassili Shirinsky, second violin, Borisovsky, alto, and Sergei Shirinsky, violoncello. In 1925 and 1927 the Quartet competed in the All-Union Quartet Contest and on both occasions took first prize. In 1931 a government edict renamed it the Beethoven State Quartet; on the occasion of the Quartet's tenth anniversary, it was awarded the title of "Merited Quartet of the Republic." The Quartet has given about two thousand concerts in many big cities of the U.S.S.R. and has made three concert tours abroad. It has been a tremendous success wherever it has appeared and is justly considered the best exponent of chamber music in the country.

The Quartet's repertoire includes almost all of the world's chamber music. The Quartet was the first to perform unpublished chamber music by Glinka, Chaikovsky, Borodin, Tanevsky and Rachmaninov. Mvaskovsky, Shostakovich, Shebalin,

Chemberdji, Gliere and Anatoli Alexandrov wrote their Quartets especially for the Beethoven ensemble and dedicated them to the four musicians.

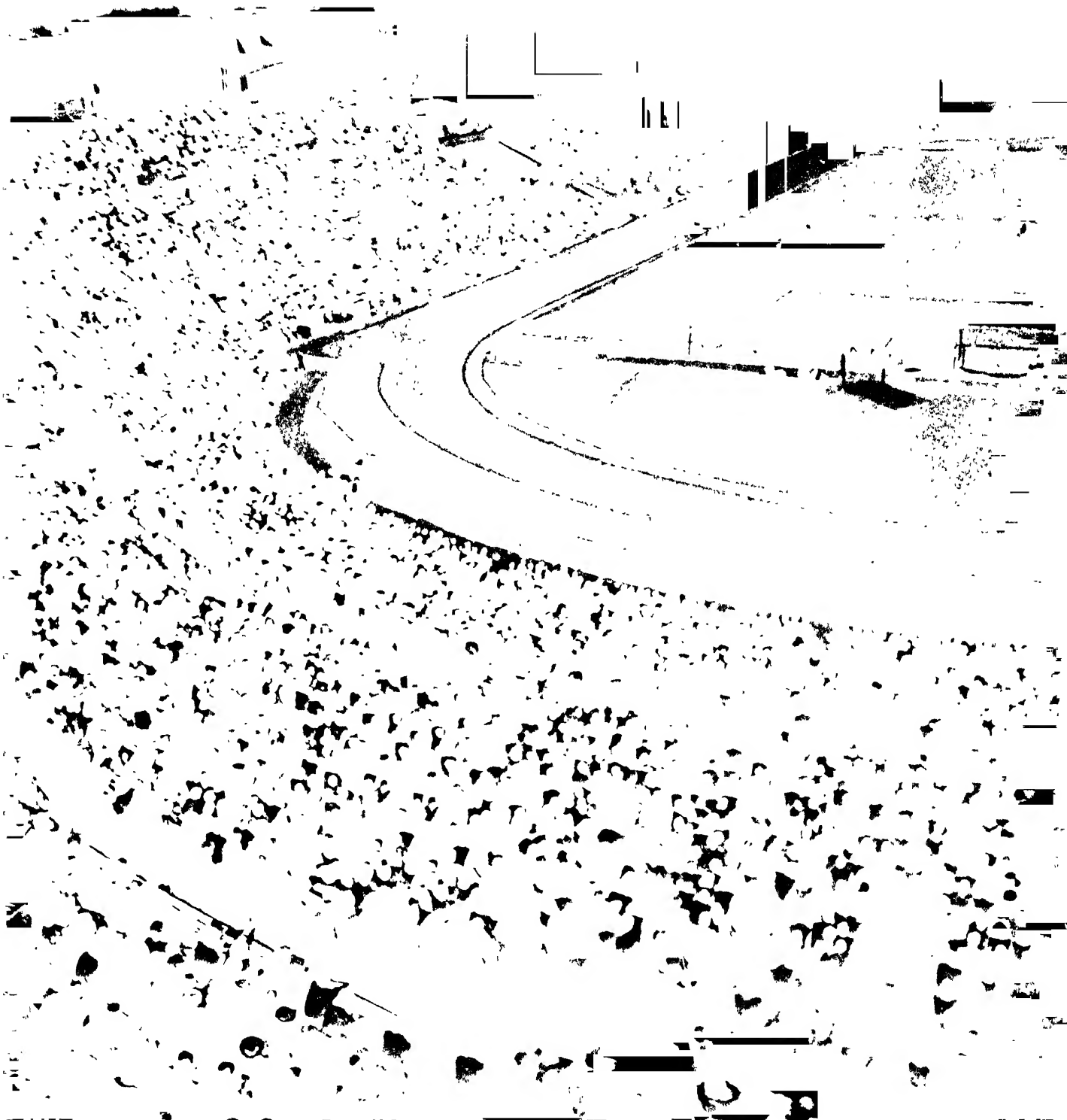
During the Great Patriotic War the Beethoven Quartet played in hospitals, at the front and on board the vessels of the Northern Fleet; all the members of the Quartet were awarded the Moscow Defence Medal and the "For Valorous Labour" Medal.

In addition to his work in the Quartet and as a professor at the Conservatory, each member of the Quartet plays at concerts as a soloist. Their own compositions and their adaptations of the classics have been published and are frequently performed on the concert stage; they are also included in the programs of higher and secondary music schools.

The four musicians were awarded the title of "Merited Worker of Art" on the occasion of the Quartet's twentieth anniversary. In 1946 the Quartet was awarded a Stalin Prize.

The Beethoven State Quartet—
Dmitri Tsyganov (first violin),
Vassili Shirinsky (second violin),
Vadim Borisovsky (alto) and
Sergei Shirinsky (violoncello).





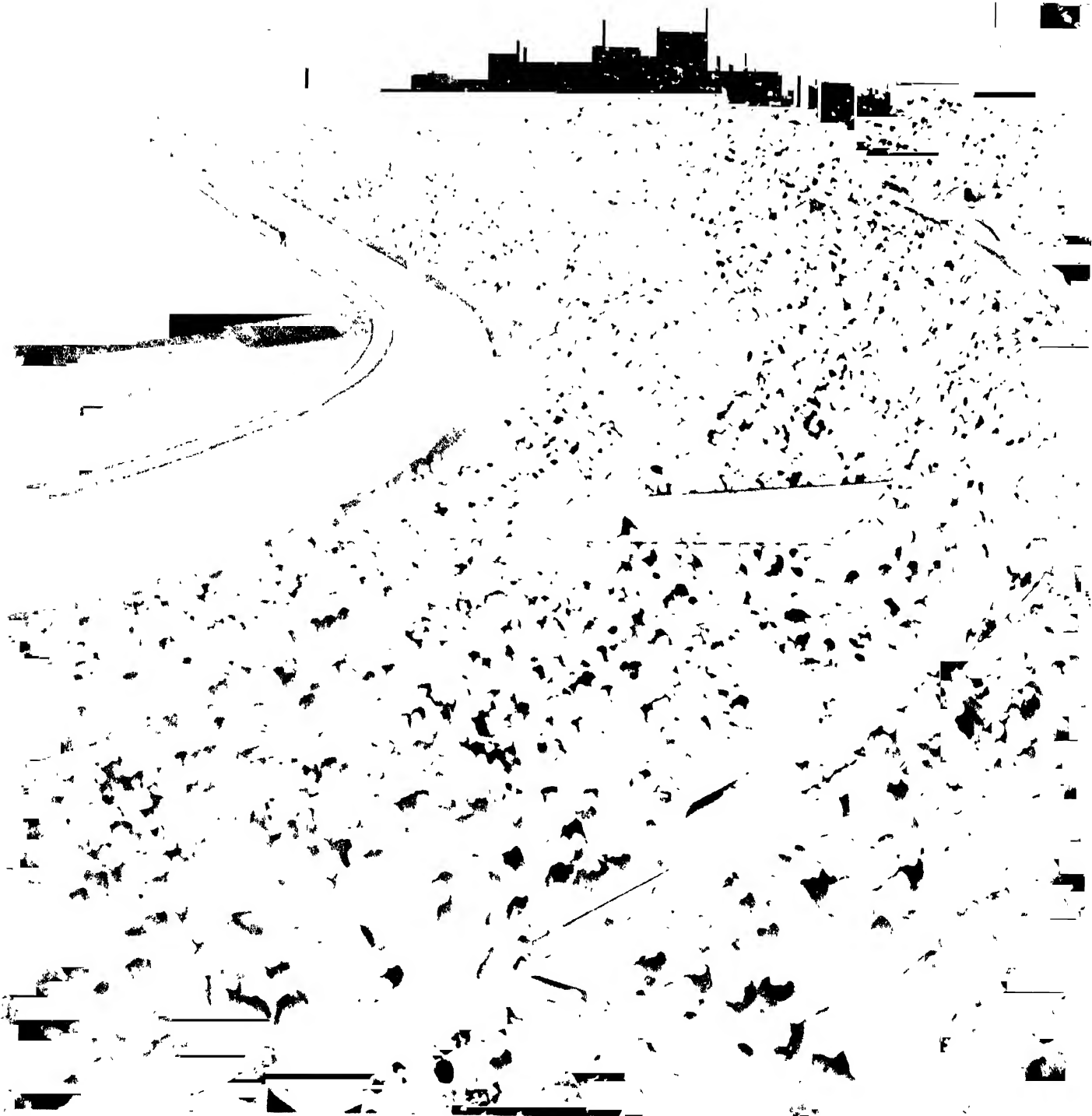
One of the exercises at a physical culture parade



DYNAMO

In 1948 the Dynamo Stadium—largest of its kind in the Soviet Union—will observe its 20th anniversary.

There are many stadiums in Moscow, but none so popular as the Dynamo Stadium. Thousands of Moscow's sport fans stream to it with the advent of spring. It is here that the traditional physical culture parades take place on Physical Culture Day. Over 90,000 Moscovites fill the light-blue bowl of the stadium in the peak days of the football matches, when the finest soccer



The Flower Dance at a recent physical culture parade

STADIUM IN MOSCOW

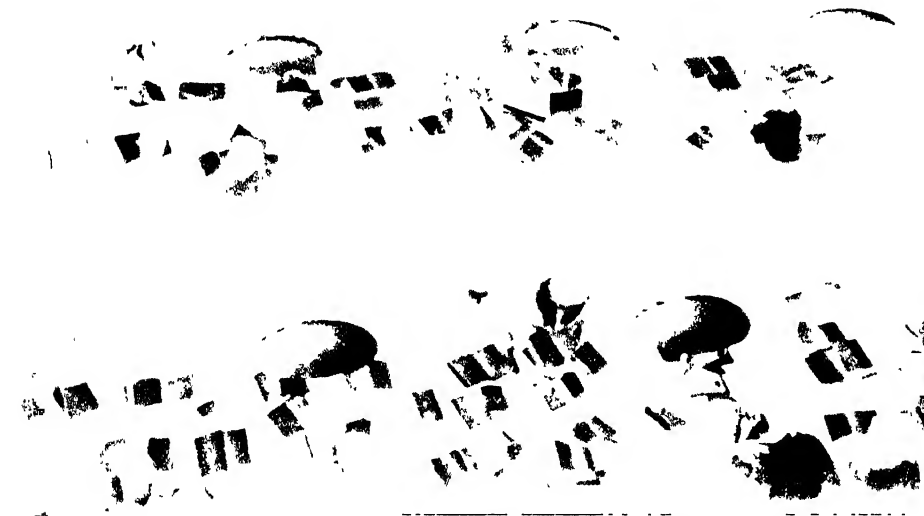
teams of the country contest for first place in the U.S.S.R. Its greensward is also the tournament ground for the international meets between U.S.S.R. soccer teams and teams of foreign lands, and the U.S.S.R. championship competitions in other forms of sport.

Sport has entrenched itself firmly in the life of the Soviet people and an honourable place in the works of advancing Soviet sport belongs to the Dynamo Stadium.

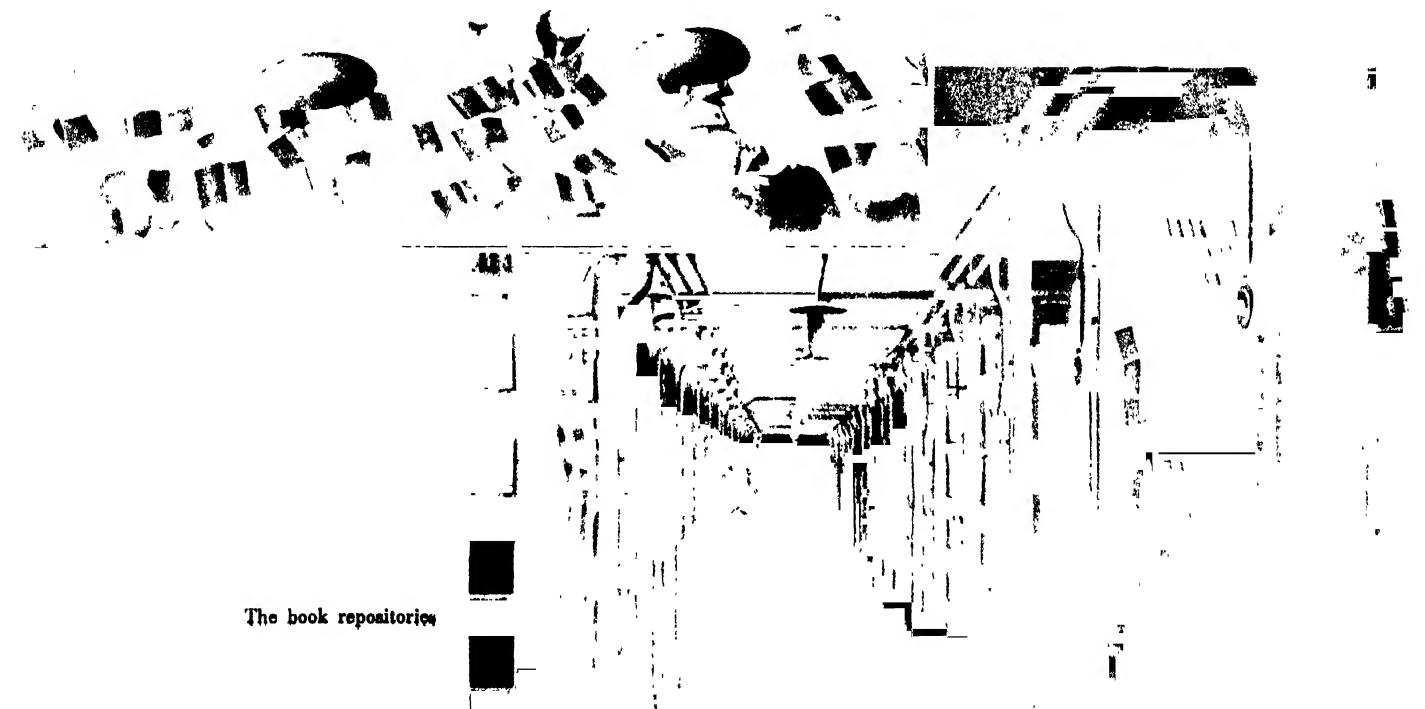




THE LENIN LIBRARY IN MOSCOW



One of the reading rooms of the library



The book repositories



The people of Russia means more to us than the country. We regard it as the soil on which a new state system will develop.

A. Herzen

ALEXANDER HERZEN

(1812-1870)

THE HISTORICAL importance of Alexander Ivanovich Herzen was profoundly and accurately appraised by Lenin, when he referred to Herzen as a writer "who played an enormous role in paving the way for the Russian Revolution." Indeed, Herzen devoted his life to the conversion of backward, tsarist and feudal Russia into an advanced democratic and socialist country. Herzen saw in Russia "the soil on which a new state system will develop, a soil . . . pregnant with the seeds of growth, and all requisites for development." Herzen always felt that he was a representative of the "nascent Russia, Russia free, young, alive," "Russia of the people." It was for this new Russia that Herzen fought with all the ardour of his magnificent essays, his profound philosophy which taught the younger generation dialectics and materialism, and his brilliant authorship which created unforgettable images of outstanding progressive Russian people.

As a thinker and publicist Alexander Herzen ranks with such great representatives of progressive Russian philosophy and the Russian revolutionary democratic movement of the 19th century, as Belinsky, Chernyshevsky, Dobrolyubov. Herzen also holds a place of honour among the splendid Russian masters of style of the 19th century. Leo Tolstoy, who knew Herzen personally and considered him the most charming person he had ever met, admired his works and loved to read them aloud. He was struck by what he called the rare combination of two qualities—depth and brilliance. Ivan Turgenev stated that Herzen's language "fills me with admiration." Maxim Gorky wrote of Herzen that "he is a realm of his own, a land amazingly rich in thoughts."

Alexander Herzen was born in Moscow in a wealthy aristocratic family. His family lived through the storm and adversities of the Patriotic War of 1812 against Napoleon and together with the entire country rejoiced at the great victory. In his later reminiscences the writer wrote: "Tales of the fire of Moscow, of the Battle of Borodino, of the taking of Paris were my cradle-songs, my nursery stories, my Iliad and my Odyssey."

A. Herzen made his debut in the sphere of Russian public interests very early in life. He owed his "moral awakening" to the St. Petersburg uprising of the revolutionary nobility against the autocracy and feudalism in December, 1825 (hence called the Decembrists). At fourteen the lad considered himself the successor of the Decembrists, called upon to safeguard their heritage and continue their cause.

When he was still a university student, Herzen became a propagandist of revolutionary ideas and the centre of a group of progressive youth. In 1834, Herzen, at the age of 22, was arrested and exiled to a remote province. But exile neither dampened his ardent ideals and aspirations, nor dimmed his intensive intellectual life. In the middle of the 'forties, Alexander Herzen attracted public interest as a talented and keen-minded writer of fiction. Particularly successful was his novel *Who's at Fault?* In addition, he wrote a philosophical work, *Letters on the Study of Nature*. The significance of this splendid work was exhaustively defined by Lenin, who said about A. Herzen: "In feudal Russia of the forties of the 19th century he rose to a height which made him the equal of the greatest thinkers of his time. [. . .] The first of his *Letters on the Study of Nature*, 'Empiricism and Idealism,' written in 1844, shows

us a thinker who even now stands head and shoulders above the host of modern empiricist natural scientists and the swarms of present-day idealist and semi-idealist philosophers. Herzen came close to dialectical materialism, and halted—before historical materialism."

Alexander Herzen was deeply dissatisfied with his life and activities. He felt that he possessed the ability and vigour of a publicist, but the censorship of Nicholas I placed insurmountable obstacles in his path. He strove for a life of political activity, but this was impossible in tsarist Russia. Exiled for the second time, he decided to go abroad, for he knew that only by leaving his country would he find a tribune from which the full vigour of his voice would be heard in Russia. In 1847, Herzen left for abroad where he led the life of a political emigrant.

The *Free Russian Press* founded by him in London published revolutionary literature for Russia. A. Herzen's journal *Kolokol* (*The Bell*) became a mighty weapon in the struggle against feudalism and the tyranny of tsarist bureaucracy. The pages of *Kolokol* were smuggled in thousands of copies into Russia and penetrated to the most remote spots, affording a powerful stimulus to Russian intellectual life.

In *Kolokol* Herzen wrote: "With regard to Russia, we passionately wish, with all the ardour of our love . . . that she rid herself at last of the old and useless swaddling clothes which hamper her mighty development." The Russia for which he struggled Herzen pictured as a great democratic state uniting the peoples oppressed by tsarism into a voluntary federation.

Through his activity and literary works Alexander Herzen acquainted Western Europe for the first time with the Russian progressive character, the Russian revolutionary, in whom an utter devotion to his people was combined with unshakable faith in advanced socialist ideals.

Herzen's memoirs *Byloye i Dumy* (*My Past and Thoughts*) are a splendid chronicle of the epoch in which he lived. The book was published in many languages and ranks in world literature with such classic works as the autobiography of Benvenuto Cellini, *Confessions* by Rousseau, *Dichtung und Wahrheit* by Goethe, and the autobiographical trilogy of Maxim Gorky. *My Past and Thoughts* supplies the most vivid picture in Russian literature of the ideological searchings of advanced Russians in the period between the thirties and the sixties of the 19th century, their strivings to find a path leading Russia and mankind to Socialism. Like Herzen's earlier book *From Another Shore*, his memoirs contain also a portrayal of the ideological life of Western Europe in the epoch of the 1848 Revolution, which for profundity of treatment is unequalled in world literature.

A. Herzen is a literary portrait-painter of great merit. The portrait gallery in his memoirs is an amazingly colourful and versatile study in human character.

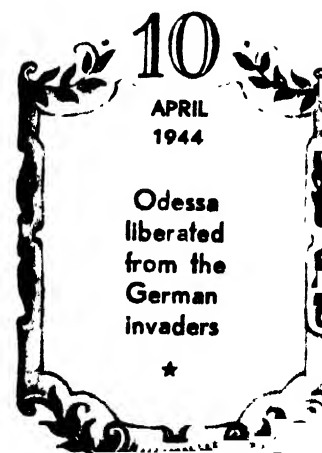
With surprising prescience he pointed out the danger which Prussian militarism spelled for the safety of the world and hailed the international workers' movement headed by Marx.

Alexander Herzen died in Paris.

The Soviet people revere the memory of Alexander Herzen. The publication of the first full collection (in twenty-two volumes) of his works and letters, most of which could not be published under tsarism, was completed in 1925.



PORT OF ODESSA IN 1945, A YEAR AFTER THE LIBERATION FROM THE INVADERS



HEROIC DEFENCE OF ODESSA
Anti-aircraft guns firing at
enemy planes, 1941

ODESSA

ODESSA, one of the most beautiful cities in the Soviet Union, situated on the shores of the Black Sea, was founded in 1794, in the reign of Empress Catherine II.

The city's advantageous location on the seaboard determined its rapid growth. By 1832 it had a population of over 80,000. A newspaper, *Odesky Vestnik* (*Odessa Herald*), was founded in 1827, and published in Russian and French. Early in the twenties of the 19th century the great Russian poet, Alexander Pushkin, lived in Odessa.

Odessa is one of the largest ports on the Black Sea, and under the Soviet government grew into an important industrial centre. The volume of Odessa's annual industrial production not long before World War II was valued at over a milliard rubles. In 1939 the city had a population of 604,000.

During the Great Patriotic War Odessa was one of the first cities to be attacked by the fascist hordes. Situated as it is not far from the Rumanian border, it soon came within the zone of military operations. In the beginning of August 1941 eleven German and Rumanian divisions stood at the approaches to the city with numerous tanks and aircraft. Shortly afterwards their number increased to eighteen. The enemy had a numerical superiority of three and a half to one over the defenders of the city.

Yet no one in Odessa even thought of capitulation. The infantry and sailors rapidly built fortifications. The entire population were enthusiastic participants in the construction of defence works and in the defence of the city. Several German regiments which had thought they could capture Odessa "at one fell swoop" were surrounded and wiped out by the Soviet troops.

Soon the enemy launched a new attack. German aircraft bombed the city and port buildings for hours on end. The enemy attacked all along the front. Simultaneously, an attempt was made to land troops from the sea. The defenders of Odessa repulsed the numerous attacks of the infantry and tanks. Soviet pilots sighted the landing fleet and, by effective attack, sank two transports and forced the rest to sheer off.

Antonescu, the vassal of Hitler, issued an order that the city be taken by September 3. The attacks of the enemy renewed with greater force; again the defenders repulsed the assault. The ships of the Black Sea Fleet rendered the defence effective assistance, keeping the lines of the attackers under a hurricane fire. Antonescu's order fell through.

The German-Rumanian command, anxious to make a speedy capture and release the large forces contained here, launched a third attack, concentrating heavy gun fire—eight guns to every kilometre of frontline—on the city. The defenders put up a successful defence but were running short of ammunition. Besides, the numerical superiority of the enemy was becoming more marked every day. Yet the city stood fast. The Soviet Command, not confining itself to passive defence, launched

active operations from time to time. Thus, Soviet troops undertook effective counter-attacks on September 22, with the support of landing parties and paratroops. That day the Soviet troops advanced five kilometres and seized numerous trophies.

However, the general situation on the front was unfavourable, and the Soviet Supreme Command ordered the troops to withdraw from the city. By this time Odessa was deep in the rear zone of the German-Rumanian troops which were then approaching the Crimea. Odessa had played its part in the general course of the campaign: by their heroic stand the defenders of the city had thwarted the plans of Hitler's Headquarters, holding off large enemy forces for a long time and thus facilitating the task of the Soviet Army on other sectors of the front. The battle of Odessa lasted seventy days, taking heavy toll of the enemy.

The evacuation of the Soviet troops from Odessa was carried out in an orderly, efficient manner. The last transport with Soviet troops left the city on the morning of October 16, 1941.

The defence of Odessa is an example of the selfless patriotism of the Soviet people and the splendid fighting qualities of the Soviet soldiers. The defenders of the city, fighting against heaviest odds, fiercely contested every inch of their native land. By their bravery, courage and unbending will to win, they have earned everlasting glory.

The German and Rumanian invaders ruled Odessa for two and a half years. They burned, destroyed and plundered almost everything of value in the city, including the factories and mills, the first-class port, and the public and educational buildings.

The fascists shamelessly pillaged the city. Hundreds of trainloads of industrial equipment, food, the costly equipment of scientific institutes and exhibits of the museums and art galleries were shipped to Rumania and Germany. Even the tram cars, tram rails and cables were carried off.

On April 10, 1944, the Soviet Army, inflicting crushing blows at the German-Rumanian forces, entered Odessa. The long-suffering city was freed from the yoke of the fascists.

In the very first days of Odessa's liberation from the German-Rumanian invaders, rehabilitation work was initiated in the city on an extensive scale. At the time of writing the port has been rebuilt and ocean liners dock there now. Factories and mills are rising out of the ruins and ashes; hundreds of enterprises have already started work. Seventeen institutes of higher education, twenty-four technical schools, six museums and four scientific-research institutes have been rebuilt and are functioning normally.

Seven theatres are now open in Odessa, ten cinemas and a large number of clubs. More than 40,000 children are now studying in the elementary and secondary schools.

The seaboard city of Odessa is rising out of the ruins.

1. 12
1930
TAK
KUMY
C. TUPU

1. 12
1930
TAK
KUMY
C. TUPU

14

APRIL
1930

Vladimir
Mayakovsky
died



FROM *LENIN IS WITH US*
BY
VLADIMIR MAYAKOVSKY

*At momentous moments,
once in an age
A phrase
is cleft from the heart,
And for years
no one thinks
of a better phrase,
Than that
which came
at the start.
Such a phrase
was born
when Lenin's face
Appeared
in "Peter" again.
Not a day,
nor a year,
nor an age
can erase,
The words
he uttered
then.*

VLADIMIR MAYAKOVSKY

VLADIMIR MAYAKOVSKY

(1893-1930)

VLADIMIR VLADIMIROVICH MAYAKOVSKY was born in 1893 in the village of Bagdadi, Georgia. He first studied at the Kutaisi *gymnasium* and then at the *gymnasium* in Moscow, from which he graduated. In 1908 he joined the Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party (Bolsheviks) and in March of the same year was charged with being implicated in the operation of a secret Bolshevik printing press. He was confined in Butyrskaya prison, but released in 1910 on account of his minority. Yet he was kept under police surveillance.

Mayakovsky devoted all his life and his brilliant poetic gifts to the cause of emancipating the working people.

At the very commencement of his literary career he showed himself an outstanding innovator of poetic forms, a pioneer of versification. This work was accompanied by a battle to infuse new content into the product of his pen, in spite of some of his own assertions of that day to the contrary. Upon his arrival in pre-revolutionary literature, the new form of poetry he evolved served him as the best expression of the sentiments he then entertained, sentiments which undisputably evinced the protests of a rebel.

The revolutionary-minded young poet sided with the extreme left in matters of literature. His first verses to appear in print were published in 1913. In 1918 he appeared on the literary scene as a member of a group of young futurists. His verses published in an anthology, entitled *A Slap At Public Taste*, were a sharp attack on the subtle, effeminate poetry of the period of decadence.

The futurist Mayakovsky, however, followed a different course from that taken by the rest of his fraternity. He could not write merely for the sake of creating one more poetic form, albeit directed against the "abstract" muse of the symbolists that graced the contemporary salons. But he was not long enraptured by the futuristic form without content, that phenomenon of sound without sense. His poetry was already then remarkable for the profundity and acuity of the social content he gave it. In his early works, whose very form betrays his emotion, he unleashed his passion against the tragic antagonism between individual personality and bourgeois society (illustrated in *Cloud in Trousers* (1915), *Spinal Column Flute* (1915), *Man* (1917).

Mayakovsky accepted the Great October Revolution without reserve, seeing in it the long-awaited liberation of man. Here is an entry in his diary:

"... October. ... To accept or not to accept. That question never arose in my mind. It is my revolution. Went to the Smolny. Worked. Did whatever had to be done."

From this period dates that quite deliberate and fully reasoned course he steered in his poetry which has found expression in these two lines:

*All my resonant powers as a poet
To you I devote, attacking class.*

The young socialist republic greatly widened the poet's horizon. He felt a soldier in the ranks of the proletariat. In the plenitude of his power, with his native force and talent, he employed all literary forms regardless of whether they were considered higher or lower. In 1919 he began to work at a special department of the Russian Telegraph Agency, where he wrote plays and poems, drew political cartoons with accompanying versified texts.

Mayakovsky always took his work seriously, striving for maximum expressiveness, clearness, simplicity and lucidity. His verses are very popular as they scourge the enemies of the young Soviet Republic. Until his death, in 1930, Mayakovsky was a prolific hard-working newspaper writer, every event in the routine of life eliciting a versified response.

Under Soviet rule, the idea of the harmonious coalescence of personal and public interests in socialist society became his paramount theme. His lyre does not play an egoistic tune of seclusion; it calls upon Soviet man to step out into the boundless world; it strums a heart-to-heart talk with the people on the topics of the day—the bottle-necks of socialist construction or the moulding of a new morality befitting man of the Socialist era. The poem *Khorosho* (Good) is dedicated to the Land of Soviets, its every line imbued with unadulterated, activating patriotism:

*And I
sing praise to my motherland,
humanity's
early spring born of struggle
and toil,
my republic,
to you
I sing!*

Mayakovsky wrote as a poet of a Soviet motherland where the great friendship of nations is an accomplished fact.

*Read,
envy me,
elect of men!
I am a Soviet citizen!*

he exclaims triumphantly and with joyous pride in his country, where mankind's loftiest ideals are coming to fruition.

Every line of his satirical writings speaks of his love of country; it glows on every page of his notes on his travels through Europe and America.

He wrote much of Lenin, the wise leader of the proletarian revolution, and what he wrote betokened his love and affection for the man. It is of him that his best verses sing, the poem bearing the name *Vladimir Ilyich Lenin* deserving special mention for its strength and maturity. In it the poet depicted "the most earthly of all men that ever trod the earth" as one of the greatest figures in world history.

Until his dying day Mayakovsky remained in the ranks of the foremost fighters for Socialism. He steadfastly reminded his fellow penmen—Soviet writers of poetry—of their place among the workers, and contemptuously branded those whose sweet romances speaking of roses and nightingales detracted from the national effort to build a Socialist state. To the poet, Mayakovsky assigned a difficult but honourable part, that of "leader of the people and at the same time the people's servant."

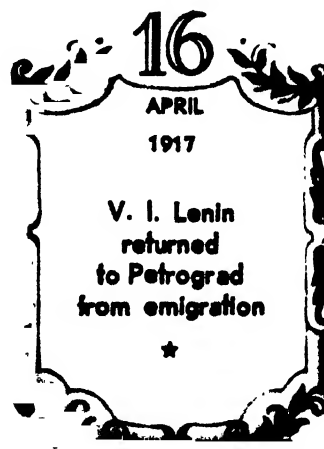
*I want pens
listed with bayonets;
The output of poems
listed
With iron and steel.
Let there be items
on the labour
of poems
In Stalin's
reports
from the Politburo.*

Mayakovsky's verses were indeed a sharp weapon of revolution. His role and significance have been succinctly described in the following words of Stalin:

"Mayakovsky was and is the best, the most talented poet our Soviet era has produced."



LENIN'S ARRIVAL IN PETROGRAD, APRIL 1917



LENIN ARRIVES IN PETROGRAD

ON APRIL 3 (16), 1917, after a long period of exile, Lenin returned to Russia.

Lenin's arrival was of tremendous importance to the Party and the revolution.

While still in Switzerland, Lenin, upon receiving the first news of the revolution, had written his *Letters From Afar* to the Party and to the working class of Russia, in which he said:

"Workers, you have displayed marvels of proletarian heroism, the heroism of the people, in the civil war against tsardom. You must now display marvels of organization, organization of the proletariat and of the whole people, in order to prepare the way for your victory in the second stage of the revolution."

Lenin arrived in Petrograd on the night of April 3. Thousands of workers, soldiers and sailors assembled at the Finland Railway Station and in the station square to welcome him. Their enthusiasm as Lenin alighted from the train was indescribable. They lifted their leader shoulder-high and carried him to the main waiting room of the station. There the Mensheviks Chkheidze and Skobelev launched into speeches of "welcome" on behalf of the Petrograd Soviet, in which they "expressed the hope" that they and Lenin would find a "common language." But Lenin did not stop to listen: sweeping past them, he went out to the masses of workers and soldiers. Mounting an armoured car, he delivered his famous speech in which he called upon the masses to fight for the victory of the Socialist Revolution. "Long live the Socialist Revolution!" were the words with which Lenin concluded this first speech after long years of exile.

Back in Russia, Lenin flung himself vigorously into revolutionary work. On the morrow of his arrival he delivered a report on the subject of the war and the revolution at a meeting of Bolsheviks, and then repeated the theses of this report at a meeting attended by Mensheviks as well as Bolsheviks.

Those were Lenin's famous *April Theses*, which provided the Party and the proletariat with a clear revolutionary line for the transition from the bourgeois to the Socialist Revolution.

Lenin's theses were of immense significance to the revolution and to the subsequent work of the Party. The revolution was a momentous turn in the life of the country. In the new conditions of the struggle that followed the overthrow of tsardom, the Party needed a new orientation to advance boldly and confidently along the new road. Lenin's theses gave the Party this orientation.

Lenin's *April Theses* laid down for the Party a brilliant plan of struggle for the transition from the bourgeois-democratic to the Socialist Revolution, from the first stage of the revolution to the second stage—the stage of the Socialist Revolution. The whole history of the Party had prepared it for this great task. As far back as 1905, Lenin had said in his pamphlet, *Two Tactics of Social-Democracy in the Democratic Revolution*, that after the overthrow of tsardom the proletariat would proceed to bring about the Socialist Revolution. The new thing in the theses was that they gave a concrete, theoretically grounded plan for the initial stage of the transition to the Socialist Revolution.

The transitional steps in the economic field were: nationalization of all the land and confiscation of the landed estates, amalgamation of all the banks into one national bank placed

under the control of the Soviet of Workers' Deputies, and establishment of control over the social production and distribution of products.

In the political field, Lenin proposed the transition from a parliamentary republic to a republic of Soviets. This was an important step forward in the theory and practice of Marxism. Hitherto, Marxist theoreticians had regarded the parliamentary republic as the best political form of transition to Socialism. Now Lenin proposed to replace the parliamentary republic by a Soviet republic as the most suitable form of political organization of society in the period of transition from capitalism to Socialism.

"The specific feature of the present situation in Russia," the theses stated, "is that it represents a *transition* from the first stage of the revolution—which, owing to the insufficient class-consciousness and organization of the proletariat, placed the power in the hands of the bourgeoisie—to the *second* stage, which must place the power in the hands of the proletariat and the poorer strata of the peasantry."

And further:

"Not a parliamentary republic—to return to a parliamentary republic from the Soviets of Workers' Deputies would be a retrograde step—but a republic of Soviets of Workers', Agricultural Labourers' and Peasants', Deputies throughout the country, from top to bottom."

Under the new government, the Provisional Government, the war continued to be a predatory imperialist war, Lenin said. It was the task of the Party to explain this to the masses and to show them that unless the bourgeoisie were overthrown, it would be impossible to end the war by a truly democratic peace and not a rapacious peace.

As regards the Provisional Government, the slogan Lenin put forward was: "No support for the Provisional Government!"

Lenin further pointed out in the theses that our Party was still in the minority in the Soviets, that the Soviets were dominated by a bloc of Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries, which was an instrument of bourgeois influence on the proletariat. Hence, the Party's task consisted in the following:

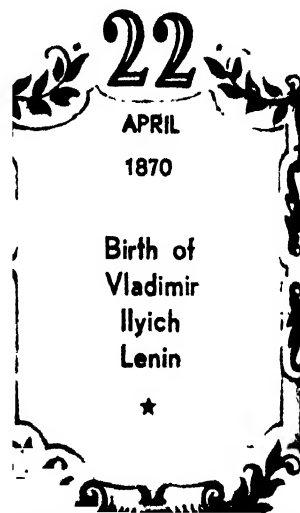
"It must be explained to the masses that the Soviets of Workers' Deputies are the *only possible* form of revolutionary government, and that therefore our task is, as long as *this* government yields to the influence of the bourgeoisie, to present a patient, systematic, and persistent *explanation* of the errors of their tactics, an explanation especially adapted to the practical needs of the masses. As long as we are in the minority we carry on the work of criticizing and exposing errors and at the same time we preach the necessity of transferring the entire power of state to the Soviets of Workers' Deputies. . . ."

This meant that Lenin was not calling for a revolt against the Provisional Government, which at that moment enjoyed the confidence of the Soviets, that he was not demanding its overthrow, but that he wanted, by means of explanatory and recruiting work, to win a majority in the Soviets, to change the policy of the Soviets, and through the Soviets to alter the composition and policy of the Government.

This was a line envisaging a peaceful development of the revolution.



V. I. LENIN'S HOUSE, NOW A MUSEUM, IN HIS NATIVE TOWN OF ULYANOVSK IN WHICH HE LIVED FROM 1878 TO 1887



NAWAR SAIAR JUNG BARADUR

LENIN'S CAUSE IS INVINCIBLE

LENIN'S LIFE and activities were inseparable from the activities of the great and heroic Bolshevik Party, which he founded.

Lenin was the genius of the revolution. In the fiercest battles fought in the new epoch, the epoch of wars and revolutionary upheavals, Lenin marched at the head of the masses of the people. Under his leadership, the Great October Socialist Revolution in the U.S.S.R. triumphed. This revolution marked the turning point in human history from the old capitalist society to the new socialist society.

The first Bolshevik revolution wrested the first hundred million inhabitants of the globe from the clutches of the First World Imperialist War, from the inferno of imperialism. The ensuing revolutions, said Lenin, will rescue the rest of mankind from the inferno of imperialist wars and capitalism.

"We have a right to be proud of the fact and consider ourselves fortunate," he wrote, "that we were the first, in one corner of the earth, to overthrow the wild beast of capitalism, which drenched the world with blood, reduced mankind to hunger and savagery, and which will soon inevitably perish, no matter how ferocious it may be in its death agony."

Lenin was a genius in his leadership of the Bolshevik Party and as the leader and teacher of the working class. He was a leader of a new type—simple and modest connected with the masses by a thousand threads, a leader of new masses—the common people, the "rank and file" of humanity who rose to fight for their emancipation. At the same time he was the greatest genius of all times and of all nations, master of all the treasures of human knowledge and human culture, wielding to perfection the all-conquering weapon of the proletariat—revolutionary Marxism.

Lenin based his revolutionary activities in changing human society on the granite foundation of Marxism, the whole contents of which he had plumbed to the very bottom. As Stalin said: "Lenin was and remains the most devoted and consistent disciple of Marx and Engels, basing himself entirely on the principles of Marxism."

Lenin treated every utterance, every thought expressed by the founders of scientific Communism with the greatest reverence, and passionately denounced those who preached "freedom to criticize" the Marxist theory as a blind for smuggling in bourgeois ideas. He relentlessly exposed those who paid lip service to Marx and Engels, but actually betrayed Marxism. Lenin championed and restored the authentic views of Marx and Engels and purged the ideas of Marxism of all sorts of opportunist distortions.

Lenin, however, constantly reiterated that Marxism was not a dogma, but a guide to action; that the Marxist theory must be developed further in all directions. He said that "the theory of Marx must be further worked out *independently*, because this theory provides only the general *guiding* postulates, which apply in *particular* to England differently from the way they apply to France, differently to France from the way they apply to Germany, and differently to Germany from the way they apply to Russia." It would be wrong to persist with the old Marxist solutions, he taught, when a changed situation demands new solutions. One must be able to employ the Marxist method of investigation in analyzing new historical conditions and a new situation.

Lenin—a titan among the scientists, unexcelled master of materialist dialectics—fearlessly brushed aside old and obsolete views and took up and solved new problems that life brought to the front.

There is not a field of knowledge and practical effort connected with the struggle of the working class for its emancipation that Lenin did not enrich with his great ideas. There is not a single event of any importance in the life of the nations at the close of the nineteenth and in the first quarter of the twentieth century, not a single event of any importance in the field of science and in the revolutionary struggle of the masses of the working people that Lenin did not throw a brilliant light on in his works.

Lenin made a great contribution to the ideological store of Marxism out of the experience of the new epoch. *He developed Marxism further and elevated it to a new and higher stage.* He is the founder of *Leninism*. To quote Stalin's classical definition: "Leninism is Marxism of the era of imperialism and of the proletarian revolution. To be more exact, Leninism is the theory and tactics of the proletarian revolution in general, the theory and tactics of the dictatorship of the proletariat in particular." Stalin revealed the unity and continuity of the tenets of Marx and Lenin, and brilliantly illuminated the new contribution that Lenin made to the treasure store of Marxism.

Lenin's doctrines are a beacon, lighting up the path of the victorious struggle of the working people for their emancipation. Lenin's ideas, assimilated by the masses, have become a great force for the reorganization of society on socialist principles. Leninism is the banner of millions of proletarians and working people all over the world.

Lenin was a devoted son of the Russian people. He was deeply proud of his nation, which created a mighty and virile state, successfully defending it against repeated foreign invasions, and created a rich and flourishing culture, an advanced science and art. Lenin was deeply proud of the Russian people who produced the most revolutionary working class in the world, who entertained a deep hatred for all national oppression, and created the first Socialist state in the world—the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics based on the fraternal co-operation of all nations.

Guided by Lenin's tenets, the Bolshevik Party united its ranks and roused the working class and the peasantry to fight against tsarist autocracy and capitalism. Under Lenin's banner the working class of Russia stormed the fortress of capitalism and triumphed in the battles of the Great October Socialist Revolution. Under Lenin's banner the Soviet people routed and exterminated the hordes of Whiteguards and foreign interventionists during the Civil War. Lenin's name is associated with the victories of the people of the Soviet Union on all fronts—military, economic, diplomatic and cultural. Lenin's name is associated with the creation and consolidation of the Soviet state and with the creation and realization of the great plan for the building of Socialism in the Soviet Union. It is with Lenin's name on their lips that the working people of the Soviet Union are marching to the great goal of Communism, surmounting all obstacles in their path and sweeping aside all the enemies of Socialism.

The life, activities and the great works of Lenin teach us how to fight successfully for the cause of Communism. Stalin exhorts us to "remember, love and study Lenin, our teacher, our leader"; he tells us to "consult" Lenin, to turn to him in solving problems, great and small.

Stalin paid a noble tribute to Lenin when, in his speech to the electors during the general elections in the Soviet Union on December 11, 1937, he described what a public figure of the Lenin type should be.

The people must demand of their deputies, said Stalin, "that in their posts they should remain political figures of the Lenin type, that as public figures they should be as clear and definite as Lenin was, that they should be as fearless in battle and as merciless towards the enemies of the people as Lenin was, that they should be free from all panic, from any semblance of panic, when things begin to get complicated and some danger or other looms on the horizon, that they should be as free from all semblance of panic as Lenin was, that they should be as wise and deliberate in deciding complex problems requiring a comprehensive orientation and a comprehensive weighing of all pros and cons as Lenin was, that they should be as upright and honest as Lenin was, that they should love their people as Lenin did."

(From: *V. I. Lenin—A Brief Sketch of his Life and Activities*, Moscow, 1945.)



THE COUNCIL OF FOREIGN MINISTERS IN SESSION



THE MOSCOW CONFERENCE OF FOREIGN MINISTERS

FOR A MONTH AND A HALF public attention all over the world was fixed on the deliberations of the Council of Foreign Ministers that met in Moscow. None of its preceding sessions had aroused such profound and vivid interest in political circles and among the most diversified sections of world public opinion. This is quite comprehensible, for the session's agenda included questions of paramount importance. This refers in the first instance to the German problem, which is of decisive importance for the peace and security of Europe. Preparing the Peace Treaty with Germany implies carrying into execution the solemn pledges given by the Great Powers and incorporated in the Yalta Conference decisions, which provide for the setting up of guarantees "that Germany will never again be able to disturb the peace of the world."

Now that the Moscow Conference is over, the question naturally arises at what value its work is to be assessed. It is obvious that the immensity and momentousness of the tasks that faced it must be taken into consideration first. Perhaps not a single case will be found where diplomatic conversations dealt with problems of similar importance and complexity. Naturally, the solution of such problems requires much time, patience and effort. It hardly need be demonstrated that the tasks assigned could not possibly have been accomplished at one session of the Council. Suffice it to recall that the preparation of the peace treaties with Germany's former satellites required approximately fifteen months.

However, the importance and intricacy of the items on the agenda of the Conference are not the only criteria in evaluating the work accomplished. The issues at the Moscow Conference were fought out in an atmosphere of extreme tension and at times issues were keenly contested. The pivotal point was the fulfilment of the Yalta and Potsdam pledges relating to Germany. The Soviet delegation fought stoutly and consistently for the implementation of the decisions there taken; it resolutely opposed all attempts emanating in the main from the American and British delegations to depart from these decisions and substitute decisions dictated by the desire of some of the powers to impose their will upon others. Of course, the repeated attempts to revise the Yalta and Potsdam decisions and to reopen questions on which agreed decisions had long ago been taken impeded the session's progress, made its work more difficult.

What, then, are the results of the Moscow Conference of Foreign Ministers, gauged by the aforesaid criteria? Let us turn first to the record of the session now ended. It clearly testifies to the fact that quite a bit has been accomplished. Agreed decisions have been reached on a number of fundamental aspects of the German problem. A decision has been adopted to liquidate Prussia, which is important inasmuch as it facilitates the democratization of the German state. A number of other decisions have been taken concerning the demilitarization, denazification and democratization of Germany. Likewise adopted are agreed decisions on the question of the "displaced persons," as they are called, and on the territorial reorganization of Germany. Considerable progress has also been made in working out the procedure for the preparation of the German Peace Treaty. As for the draft of the Austrian Treaty, a commission has been formed which will examine a number of its articles with a view to conciliating the points of view of the governments represented in the commission. Much importance is attached to the decision to repatriate the German war prisoners not later than December 31, 1948.

This is the first and quite concrete result of the proceedings at the session. It is not the only result. The second result consists in the circumstance that in the course of the conference the real position of each country on the German problem

with particular reference to the fulfilment of the Yalta and Potsdam decisions came to light, which is of tremendous importance. It cannot be overlooked that the discussion in the Council of Foreign Ministers on the Control Council's report gave the whole world a real picture of the state of affairs in Germany, viz., that while in the Soviet zone the demilitarization as well as denazification and democratization of the German people has been carried out consistently, in the western zones the extent to which Germany's military and industrial potential has been liquidated is wholly inadequate, as is exemplified by the Ruhr. As heretofore, it is no rare occurrence even today to find the magnates of German monopoly capital, former Hitlerites, in command of the key positions of economic life. Nor does democratization in the western zones of occupation fare any better. One cannot fail to notice that this lamentable state of affairs is a direct consequence of non-compliance with the Potsdam decisions. It is therefore no fortuity that the fight for the fulfilment of the Yalta and Potsdam decisions assumed so sharp a character at the Moscow session of the Foreign Ministers.

It must be admitted that all attempts to revise the Yalta and Potsdam decisions failed—and such attempts were repeatedly launched by both the American and British delegations. The decisions remained unshaken. Credit for this undoubtedly belongs to the Soviet delegation, which unfalteringly championed the policy of unity among the Great Powers and the honouring of agreed decisions once they have been adopted.

One may make bold to assert that the Moscow Conference laid the groundwork for a decision on the German problem. However, the debate on the fundamental issues involved was not brought to a close. Left unfinished, in particular, is the examination of the economic principles to govern Germany and the question of the level of Germany's post-war economy as well as the reparations program. As everybody knows, the Soviet delegation declared that it views the economic principles as organically connected with the question of reparations, and that the latter is of prime importance. Inasmuch as the question of German reparations has not yet been decided, the Austrian Treaty is also suffering delay since one of its principal articles deals with German assets. The Soviet delegation's readiness to meet other delegations half-way on a number of points concerning economic principles, provided they are willing to meet it in a similar spirit on the reparations question, has not yet elicited a satisfactory response.

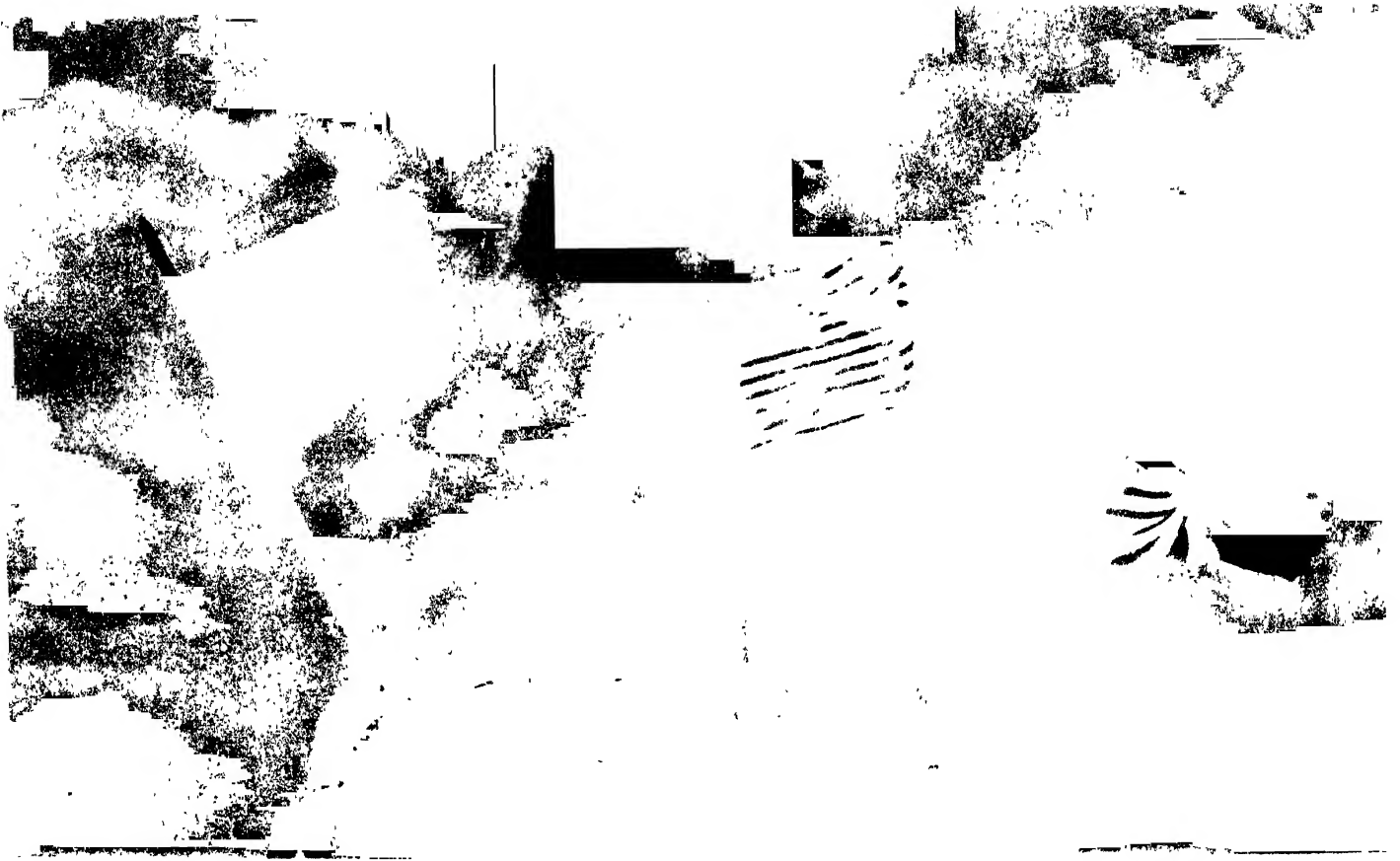
Indubitably numerous difficulties are still ahead. But the adoption of agreed decisions by the Four Great Powers was never a simple and easy matter. Nevertheless, it can be asserted that if the tried and tested methods of international co-operation are followed, it is perfectly possible to work out agreed decisions that will lead to a solution of the German problem in the spirit called for by concern for the peace and security of the nations.

Democrats all over the world will appraise the work and the results of the Conference at their real worth. For during the course of the Conference it became absolutely clear that in the interest of peace and security, of lasting and democratic peace, the solemn pledges given by the Great Powers during the war and after victory over Hitler Germany must infallibly be kept.

This is the course to be followed, and it is for this course that the Soviet delegation fought at the Moscow Conference. It is a course inspired by the principles of our Stalinist foreign policy, the policy of struggle for enduring democratic peace and genuine international co-operation based on equality.

Pravda

April 29, 1947.



SECOND BYELORUSSIAN FRONT. THE CAVALRY GUARDS OF LIEUTENANT-GENERAL OSLIKOVSKY
AND THE TROOPS OF THE 13TH AMERICAN TANK CORPS MEET AT THE ELBE. 1945



**ADDRESS
OF J. V. STALIN,
MARSHAL OF THE SOVIET UNION,
SUPREME COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF,
TO THE RED ARMY
AND THE ALLIED TROOPS**

April 27, 1945

On behalf of the Soviet Government I address myself to you, commanders and men of the Red Army and of the armies of our Allies.

The victorious armies of the Allied Powers who are waging a war of liberation in Europe have routed the German troops and have effected a junction in the territory of Germany.

Our task, and our duty, is to deliver the finishing stroke at the enemy and compel him to lay down his

arms and surrender unconditionally. This task, and this duty towards our people and towards all the freedom-loving peoples, will be carried out by the Red Army to the very end.

I greet the valiant troops of our Allies who are now standing on German territory shoulder to shoulder with the Soviet troops, determined to perform their duty to the end.

**ORDER OF THE DAY
OF THE SUPREME COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF
TO THE ARMY ON ACTIVE SERVICE**

The troops of the First *Ukrainian* Front and our Allied British and American troops, striking from the East and West, severed the front of the German troops and on April 25, at 13 hours 30 minutes, effected a junction in the middle of Germany, in the region of *Torgau*. As a result, the German troops located in North Germany have been cut off from the German troops in the southern regions of Germany.

To mark this victory, and in honour of this historic event, today, April 27, at 19 hours, the capital of our country, *Moscow*, will, on behalf of our country,

salute the valiant troops of the First *Ukrainian* Front and our Allied British and American troops with twenty-four artillery salvoes, fired from three hundred and twenty-four guns.

Long live the victory of the freedom-loving nations over Germany!

J. STALIN

Marshal of the Soviet Union
Supreme Commander-in-Chief

April 27, 1945. No. 346.



***The Arms
of the Azerbaijan Soviet Socialist
Republic***

AZERBAIJAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE AZERBAIJAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC is situated in the eastern part of Transcaucasia, facing the Caspian Sea, and borders in the south with Iran. The republic extends over an area of 85,700 square kilometres and has a population of 3,200,000, consisting besides Azerbaijanians, of Armenians, Russians, Tatars, Talyshi and Kurds.

Baku, the capital of the Azerbaijan S.S.R., is the largest oil centre of the U.S.S.R. The Baku proletariat organized one of the strongest branches of the Bolshevik Party in tsarist Russia, which played an important part in paving the way for the revolution. Joseph Stalin worked in Baku for a number of years and headed the Bolshevik organization of the town. The revolutionary proletariat of Baku exercised great influence on the Azerbaijan peasantry exploited by the *beys* and khans of the country known for its most backward patriarchal-feudal relationships.

The Great October Socialist Revolution of 1917 freed the peoples of Azerbaijan from the national and social yoke. However, the Soviet government, which had sprung up in Baku and in other districts of Azerbaijan, fell several months later under the combined attack of the forces of internal counter-revolution and foreign intervention. The people of Azerbaijan lived through a grim period of Turkish invasion and British occupation that followed in its wake. Only after two and a half years of stubborn fighting against their own landlords and capitalists and against foreign interventionists did the people of Azerbaijan win complete victory. An uprising of the workers and peasants, supported by the Red Army, led in April 1920 to the final establishment of Soviet power in Azerbaijan.

From 1922 to 1936 the Azerbaijan S.S.R. was a member of the Transcaucasian Federation; on December 5, 1936, it became a Union Republic of the U.S.S.R.

All branches of the national economy and culture of Azerbaijan have prospered greatly under Soviet rule.

Oil, the chief industry of the republic, has developed to an extent that it is considered not only of all-Union but of world importance. The republic's output of oil has almost quadrupled and the production of gasoline has increased nearly 47 times over. New rich oil deposits yield more than 80 per cent of all of Baku's oil. Equipped with up-to-date machinery, the oil wells and oil refineries of Azerbaijan have become the pride of Soviet industry.

The Five-Year Plans have seen the rapid development of not only the oil industry but of such new branches as engineering, textile and food industries. The republic is intersected by excellently paved roads; the most important railway lines have been electrified, and the life of the workers in the industrial centres, particularly in Baku, has changed beyond recognition. Gone are the barracks, the mud huts and filthy shacks in which the workers lived huddled together.

The collective-farm system brought prosperity to the farmers of the republic. Big canals turned the vast dry steppes into blossoming cotton plantations. The acreage under cotton increased from 2,000 hectares in 1920 to 195,300 in 1946. During the same period the yield of cotton per hectare rose from 130 kg. to 1,160 kg. for American varieties and 710 kg. for Egyptian varieties. Azerbaijan has become the purveyor of the best grades of Egyptian cotton. The acreage under grapes, citrus fruits, rubber-bearing plants, rice and tobacco has increased and is continuing to grow. The gross output of Azerbaijan agriculture has doubled since the revolution. The famous Caspian Sea fisheries, equipped with modern machinery, yield three-fourths of the world output of sturgeon caviar.

Education has made enormous progress in Azerbaijan. Before the revolution there was not a single institution of higher education or scientific research in the country; the population was almost wholly (over 90 per cent) illiterate, and the number of pupils of the elementary and secondary schools in 1914 was no more than 73,000. Last year (1946), 530,000 children studied in the elementary and secondary schools and 23,000 students were enrolled in the 18 institutions of higher learning and the dozens of specialized technical schools. An Academy of

Sciences of the Azerbaijan S.S.R., co-ordinating the work of 64 scientific-research institutions, has been founded.

The numerous cultural and educational institutions of the republic include 958 clubs, 96 houses of culture and 26 museums. The translation and publication of the classics of Marxism-Leninism, of the best books of world literature, and of the works of great Russian and Azerbaijan writers, constituted an important step in the development of Azerbaijan culture. Between 1937 and 1946 alone the number of printed books in the republic amounted to 52,600,000.

Great changes have taken place in the life of the women who lived a secluded life, hiding their faces under the *yashmak*. Today the women take a most active part in the economic, cultural and political life of the country.

In the Great Patriotic War hundreds of thousands of Azerbaijanians fought against fascism—the common enemy of all freedom-loving peoples. Unfading glory has covered the battle banners of the distinguished Taganrog Division consisting of Azerbaijanians; more than 20,000 Azerbaijan combat men have been decorated with Orders and Medals of the U.S.S.R. The high title of Hero of the Soviet Union has been awarded to 60 Azerbaijanians, including Azi Aslanov, Major-General of Armoured Troops, participant of the great battles for Moscow and Stalingrad.

The new Stalin Five-Year Plan ensures the further development of all branches of the Azerbaijan national economy and culture.

As much as 5,900,000,000 rubles will be invested in the national economy of the Azerbaijan S.S.R. between 1946 and 1950. The output of its industry in 1950 will exceed the 1940 figure by 18 per cent.

The oil output of the republic will increase by 50 per cent and amount to 17,000,000 tons a year.

The oil industry will have more machinery and a greater power supply. A large tubing mill is being built in Sumgait and is soon to start operating, as are a number of new electric-power plants, machine-building and other plants.

The first section of the Mingechaur Hydroelectric Power Plant on the Kura River, now under construction, will be launched in 1950. This plant will be one of the largest power plants in the U.S.S.R.; it will provide Baku and a number of other industrial centres of the republic with electric power. Its huge reservoirs, with a capacity of 16,000,000,000 cubic metres of water, will irrigate 600,000 hectares of land sown to cotton, wheat and grapes.

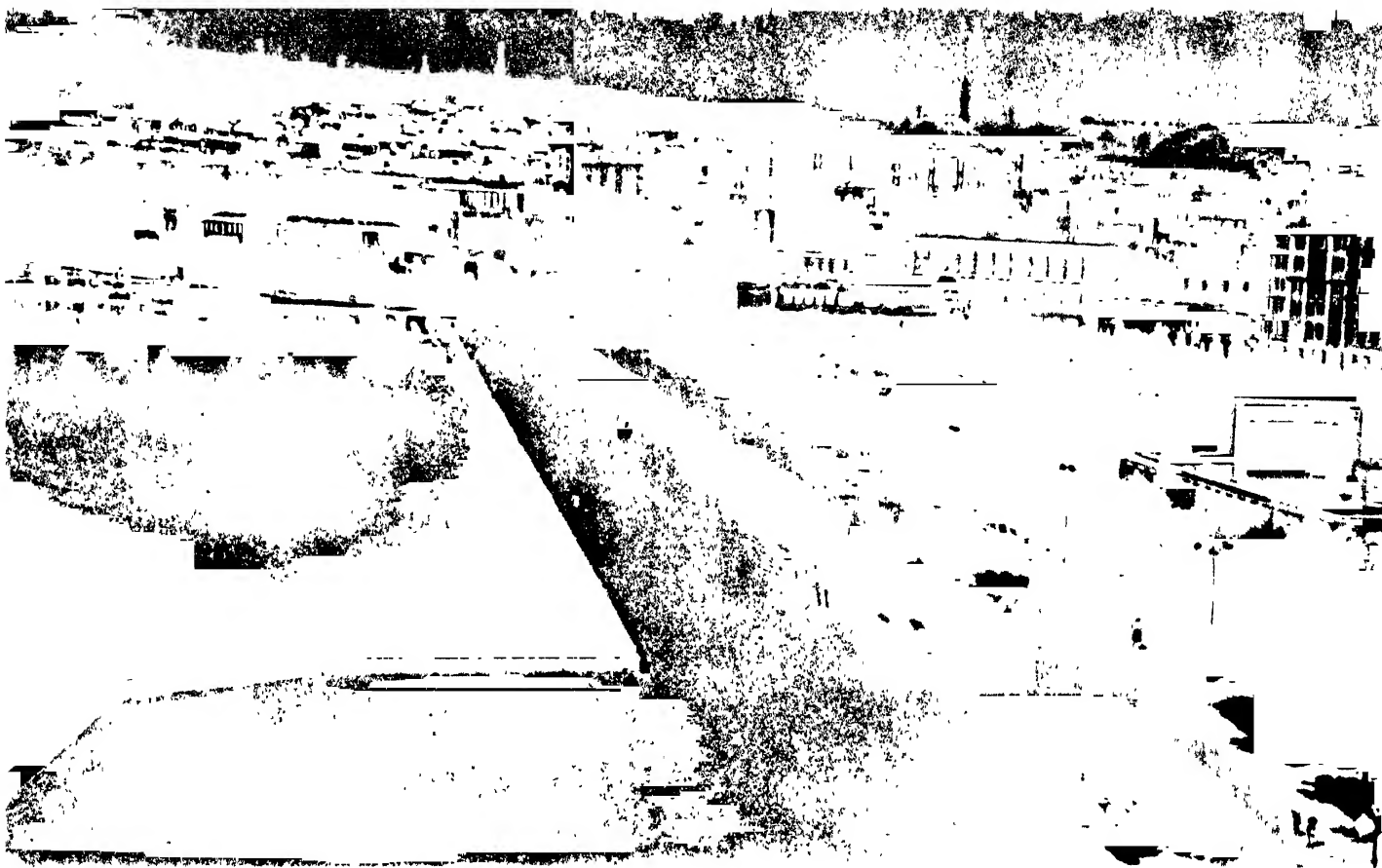
The acreage under crop in 1950 will amount to 1,216,000 hectares. The yield of all agricultural crops will increase, and so will the areas sown to tea, citrus and other fruits.

The post-war Five-Year Plan provides for a considerable improvement in the living conditions of the people of Azerbaijan.

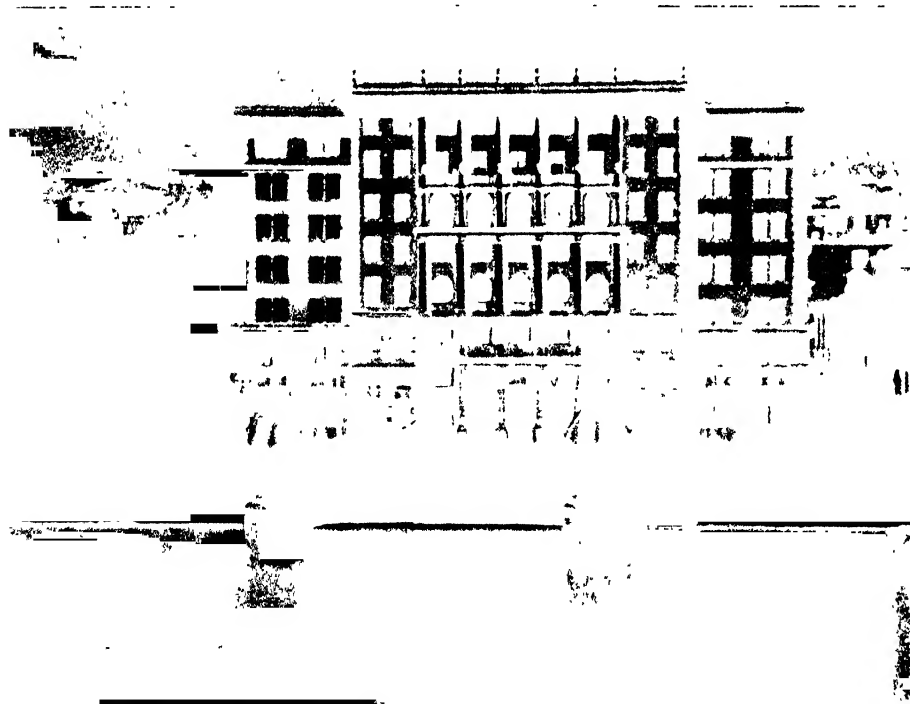
School enrolment will reach 569,000, with the number of schools increasing to 3,359. Six hundred and ten thousand square metres of additional living accommodations will be made available for the population. Particular attention is being paid to city planning. Public buildings, apartment houses, bath houses, hotels and cinema theatres are already under construction. The area under parks, gardens and boulevards is being increased; streets and squares are being paved. Electric-power plants and city water pipe-lines are being built in Kirovabad, Lenkoran and other cities.

Baku will become a most beautiful city. A new boulevard, fringed with evergreens and other decorative trees and plants, will be laid out along the seashore. Many new buildings of fine architectural design will be erected. The city's outskirts will also be transformed. A huge stadium with a seating capacity of 30,000 will be built in the Dzerzhinsky Park of Culture and Rest. Statues are to adorn the roads leading from Baku to the other districts of the republic.

Soviet Azerbaijan, a country of oil and cotton, will, in the first post-war Five-Year Plan, take another big step forward towards greater prosperity and plenty.



BAKU, CAPITAL OF THE AZERBAIJAN S.S.R. VIEW OF PRIMORSKY BOULEVARD



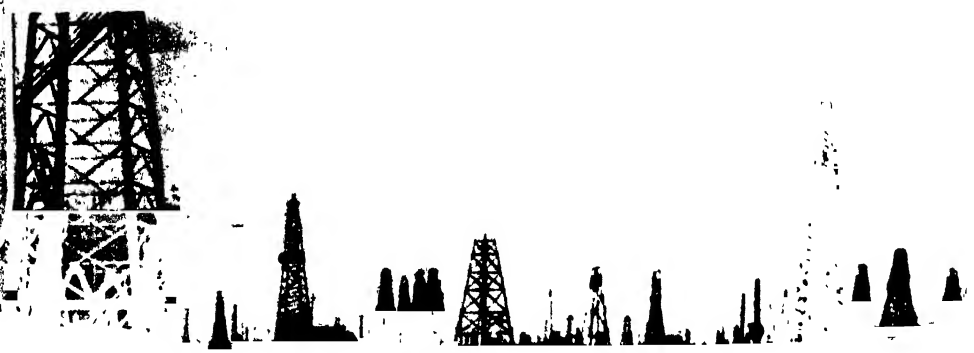
Apartment house on Nizami Square in Baku



An oil-field worker

OIL DERRICKS IN THE SEA

OIL DERRICKS IN BAKU



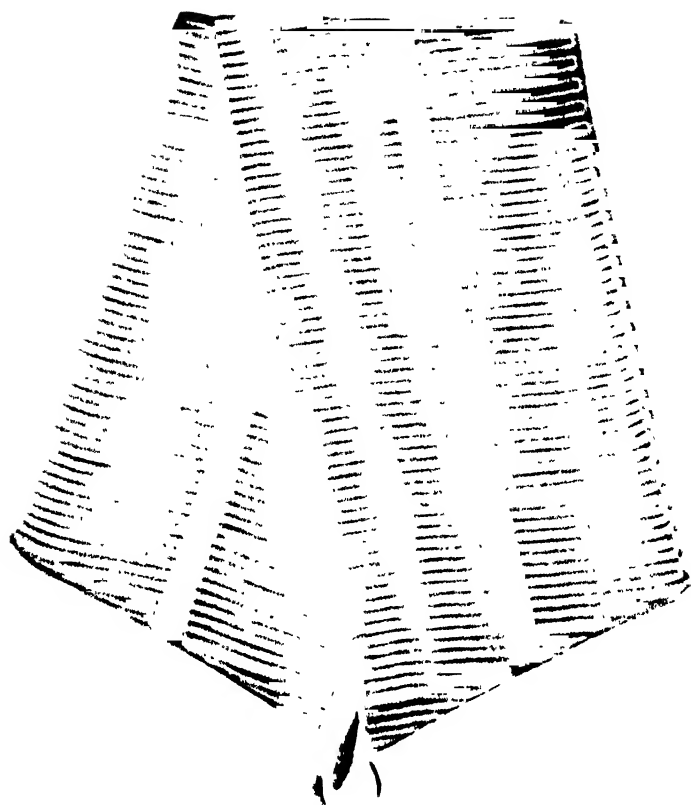


"IN AREAS OCCUPIED BY THE ENEMY, GUERILLA UNITS, MOUNTED AND FOOT, MUST BE FORMED, SABOTAGE GROUPS MUST BE ORGANIZED TO COMBAT ENEMY UNITS, TO FOMENT GUERILLA WARFARE EVERYWHERE, TO BLOW UP BRIDGES AND ROADS, DAMAGE TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH LINES AND SET FIRE TO FORESTS, STORES AND TRANSPORTS. IN OCCUPIED REGIONS CONDITIONS MUST BE MADE UNBEARABLE FOR THE ENEMY AND ALL HIS ACCOMPLICES. THEY MUST BE HOUNDED AND ANNIHILATED AT EVERY STEP, AND ALL THEIR MEASURES FRUSTRATED."

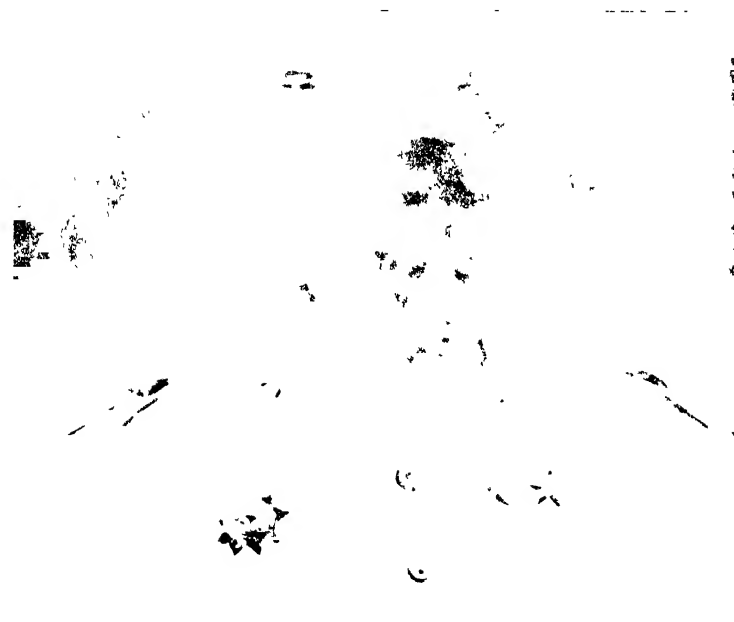
J. STALIN

"THE GUERILLA STRUGGLE, IN WHICH ALL THE NATIONALITIES INHABITING THE TERRITORIES OF THE U.S.S.R. INVADDED BY THE GERMANS PARTICIPATED, WAS A STRIKING DEMONSTRATION TO THE OUTSIDE WORLD THAT SOVIET GOVERNMENT MEANS PEOPLE'S GOVERNMENT, THAT THE PEOPLE LOVE IT AND ARE FIRMLY RESOLVED TO FIGHT FOR ITS PRESERVATION, FOR THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE SOVIET UNION. THERE CAN BE NO MORE CONVINCING PROOF OF THE MORAL AND POLITICAL UNITY OF THE PEOPLES OF THE SOVIET UNION."

M. KALININ



THE "PARTISAN OF THE PATRIOTIC WAR" MEDAL



Oil painting by A. Shovkunenko

Twice Hero of the Soviet Union Major-General Kovpak



Two companions-in-arms, Major-General Kovpak and Hero of the Soviet Union Major-General Vershigora (left), in the rear of the enemy. Kiev region, March 1943



Kovpak following the course of a battle between partisans and the Germans



Kovpak with his comrades-in-arms Major General Vershigora and Battalion Commander Podolyanko after the battle



Presentation of decorations to partisans in the rear of the enemy. May 1944



Partisans having their meal. In the rear of the enemy, Kiev forests, March 1943

THE GUERILLA WAR

IN THE EARLY DAYS of the German fascist invasion of the Soviet Union, guerilla warfare broke out on the territories temporarily occupied by the enemy.

At the call of Joseph Stalin, peace-loving Soviet men and women took up arms and carried into execution the unforgettable words of the Soviet leader: "In occupied regions conditions must be made unbearable for the enemy and all his accomplices. They must be hounded and annihilated at every step, and all their measures frustrated."

In their attempts to extinguish the fire of the guerilla war the Hitlerites did not hesitate before the most monstrous crimes. The guerillas who fell into their hands were tortured to death. The Nazi butchers wiped hundreds of large villages off the face of the earth because they were suspected of helping the guerillas. Nothing, however, could shake the will of the Soviet people to wage a merciless struggle against the hated enemy. Despite innumerable difficulties and hardships and in defiance of all the enemy's efforts, the guerilla movement grew and expanded into a powerful force that was a constant menace to the Germans.

Over 200,000 people's avengers in 2,145 guerilla groups, detachments and formations operated on the occupied territory of the Ukraine as early as the first year of the Patriotic War. In Pskov region a whole territory turned guerilla in August 1941, and, by spring 1942, had grown to include 400 villages. In the rear of the enemy Soviet power was re-established. Columns of carts loaded with food were sent across the frontline to the defenders of besieged Leningrad.

In the steppes of the Ukraine and the forest thickets of Byelorussia, in the vast expanses of the Don and Kuban, in the Bryansk forests, the Baltic republics, the Crimea and Moscow region—wherever the German fascist enslavers appeared they met with the wrath of a "people's war." German troop and supply trains were derailed and bridges were blown up.

The sudden and precipitate attacks of the guerilla detachments caused great casualties to the German army and did extensive damage to its materiel. In only two years the guerillas, according to very incomplete figures, killed more than 300,000 invaders, including 30 generals and 6,336 officers. During the same period they derailed no less than 3,000 enemy trains and wrecked 3,263 railroad and highway bridges. The guerillas wrecked more than 1,190 German tanks and armoured cars, 476 planes, 378 guns and 14,645 motor-vehicles and destroyed 895 bases and munition stores. In addition the guerillas captured large quantities of all sorts of German materiel.

The wide scope of guerilla warfare forced the enemy to keep large forces in the rear and withdraw troops from the front. In the Ukraine in 1941 some 50,000 fascist troops were engaged in fighting the guerillas. In 1942, Ukrainian partisans diverted 120,000 German officers and men from the front, while in 1943 this number grew to 424,000.

In the attempt to suppress the guerilla movement the Hitlerites constantly increased their bloody terror. The merciless atrocities of the German fascist invaders, however, only served to fan in the people the sacred flames of hatred for the brutal enemy.

Despite the persecutions, ever greater masses of people joined the guerilla movement.

In the autumn of 1942 Joseph Stalin conferred in the Kremlin with commanders of guerilla detachments and formations. He pointed out concrete ways and means of further extending the guerilla movement, which in combination with the operations of the Soviet Army at the fronts was to aid in the final rout of Hitler's army. Generalissimo Stalin's instructions gave a powerful impetus to the further growth of the people's guerilla warfare in the rear of the enemy.

Putting the Stalin plan into practice the guerillas began to launch bold and protracted raids on the occupied territory, destroying enemy garrisons on their way, seizing and destroying German stores, blowing up bridges and cutting communications of the German fascist troops.

The guerillas commanded by Twice Hero of the Soviet Union Sidor Kovpak covered a distance of more than 18,000 kilometres through 20 regions of the Ukraine and Byelorussia and two Polish provinces, all occupied by the Germans. They fought a number of successful battles against the German invaders and diverted considerable forces from the front. More than 20 times the Germans succeeded in surrounding the guerillas, but, brilliantly employing their own special tactics, the guerillas broke through the encirclement where they were least expected and struck ever new blows at the enemy. In the course of the war Sidor Kovpak's guerillas accounted for 26,185 German officers and men, 89 troop trains, 12 planes, 162 tanks and armoured cars, 225 bridges, etc.

Hero of the Soviet Union Mikhail Naumov's guerilla formation traversed 14 regions, passed through 2,080 towns and villages and killed 11,600 German officers and men in a raid on enemy lines of communication.

Other guerilla detachments met with equal success.

The guerillas were assisted in their tense and bitter struggle by the Soviet government and Joseph Stalin personally. Large quantities of arms, munitions, clothing and equipment were regularly delivered to the detachments by planes. Not infrequently the guerillas attacked the enemy jointly with units of the Soviet Army, acting in accordance with a single plan.

The Soviet guerillas wrote one of the most glorious pages in the history of the Great Patriotic War. Tens of thousands of peaceful Soviet people performed great deeds of courage and self-denial.

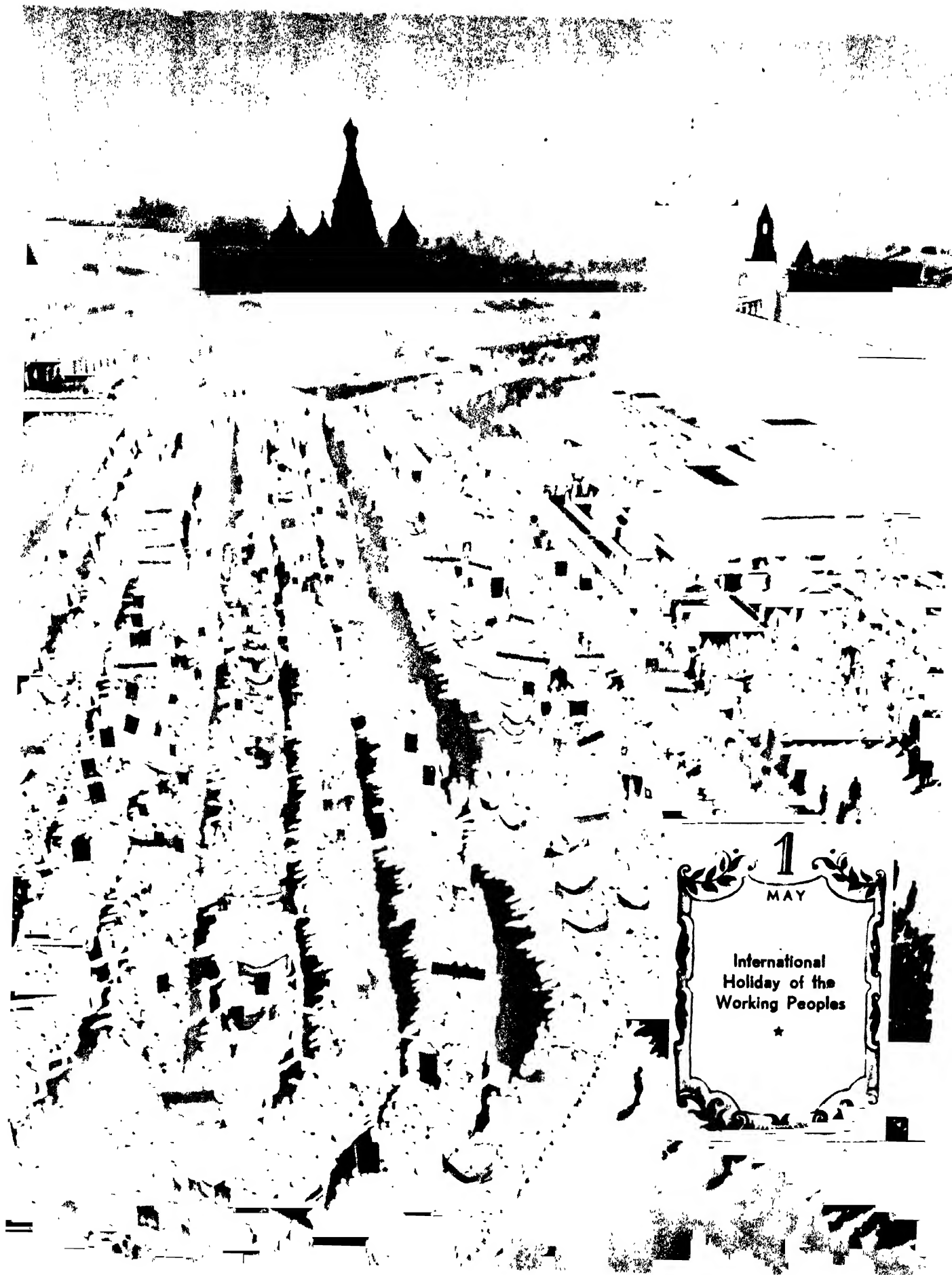
The names of Zoya Kosmodomyanskaya and Lisa Chalkina, young guerillas, who died the death of heroines at the hands of a cruel enemy, have been immortalized by their deeds. The Soviet people will never forget the brothers Gennadi and Evgeni Ignatov, who, executing the order of the commander of a guerilla detachment—their father Pyotr Ignatov—perished while blowing up a German troop train.

The entire Soviet people reveres the memory of the guerilla-heroes who laid down their lives that the hated enemy might be destroyed and victory won. Their glory will never fade.

The country has highly appraised the exploits of the people's avengers. In the Ukraine alone more than 10,000 guerillas were decorated with Orders and more than 20,000 with Medals. The valorous deeds of the guerillas of the Great Patriotic War were a brilliant expression of the intrepid heroic spirit of the Soviet people.

MAY

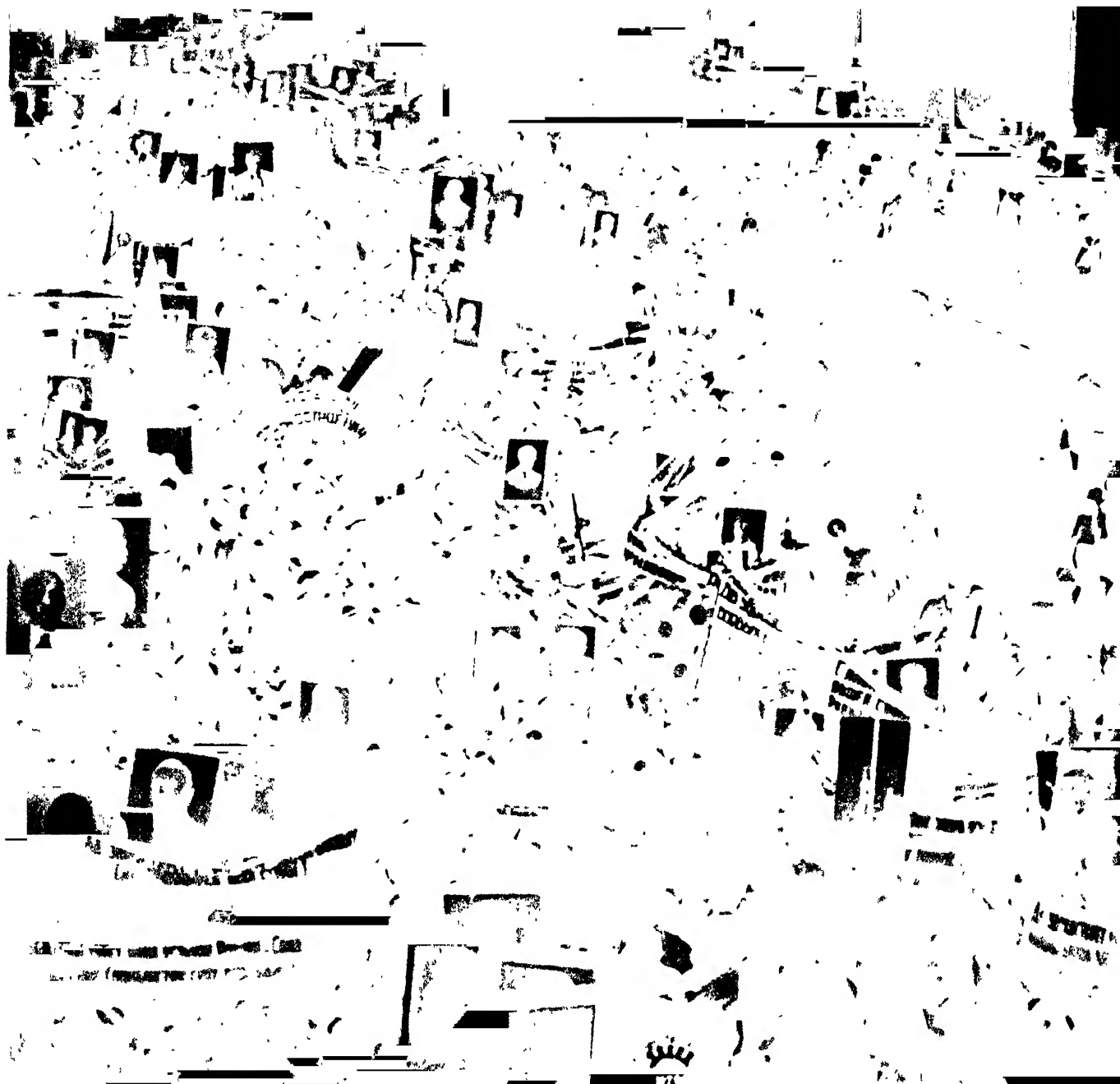
- MAY 1** *International holiday of the working people.*
- MAY 2, 1945** *Units of the Soviet Army took full possession of Berlin, the capital of Germany.*
- MAY 5** *Soviet Press Day.*
- MAY 5, 1818** *Birth of Karl Marx.*
- MAY 7** *Radio Day.*
- MAY 9** *Victory Day.*
- MAY 9, 1944** *Units of the Soviet Army captured by storm the fortress and important Black Sea port of Sevastopol. The Crimea completely liberated from the German invaders.*
- MAY 9, 1945** *Units of the Soviet Army liberated Prague, the capital of Czechoslovakia, from the German invaders.*
- MAY 15, 1935** *The first line of the Moscow subway put into operation.*
- MAY 19, 1888** *Birth of Nikolai Mikhailovich Shvernik, President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.*
- MAY 25, 1930** *The first oil well of the "Second Baku" put to exploitation.*
- MAY 27, 1947** *Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. on the abolition of capital punishment published.*
- MAY 30, 1918** *Georgi Plekhanov died.*



1
MAY

International
Holiday of the
Working Peoples

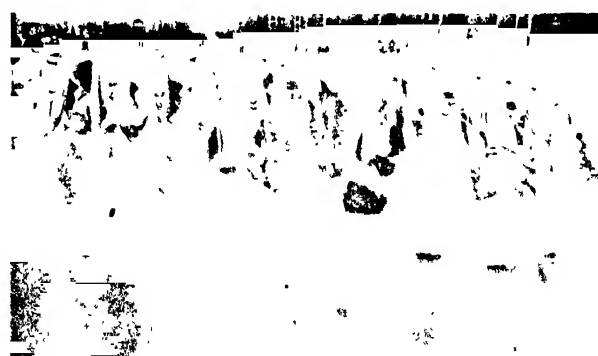
★



MAY DAY DEMONSTRATION ON RED SQUARE MOSCOW



Student athletes at a May Day demonstration
Tbilisi, Georgian S.S.R.



May Day festival in Kiev, Ukrainian S.S.R.



**THE FLAG OF VICTORY
OVER THE REICHSTAG
IN BERLIN. SALUTE ON
MAY 2, 1945**

THE FLAG OF VICTORY

ON APRIL 30, 1945, when street fighting was in progress in Berlin, infantry units of the 150th Rifle Division crossed the Spree and swept on towards the Reichstag.

A handful of intrepid fighters succeeded in breaking into the building; first among them were Captain K. Samsonov, Lance Sergeant M. Kantaria and Sergeant M. Yegorov. It fell to their honour to raise the red flag of the victors over the Reichstag. Two days later Berlin capitulated. The flag that waved over the cupola of the Reichstag crowned the victory of the Soviet Army.

On June 20, 1945, the Flag of Victory was brought to Moscow. It was a piece of simple red material attached to a simple, unpretentious staff, showing in the upper left hand corner a sickle and hammer and in the centre the following inscription:

The 150th Idritsa Rifle Division, awarded the Order of Kutuzov, second class, of the 79th Rifle Corps, Third Shock Army of the First Byelorussian Front.

This was the division to which the men who had stormed the Reichstag and hoisted the Flag of Victory over it belonged.

The flag had been pierced in several places by bullets and fragments of shells.

Today the Flag of Victory, together with other battle standards, is in the safekeeping of one of the military units of the Soviet capital.

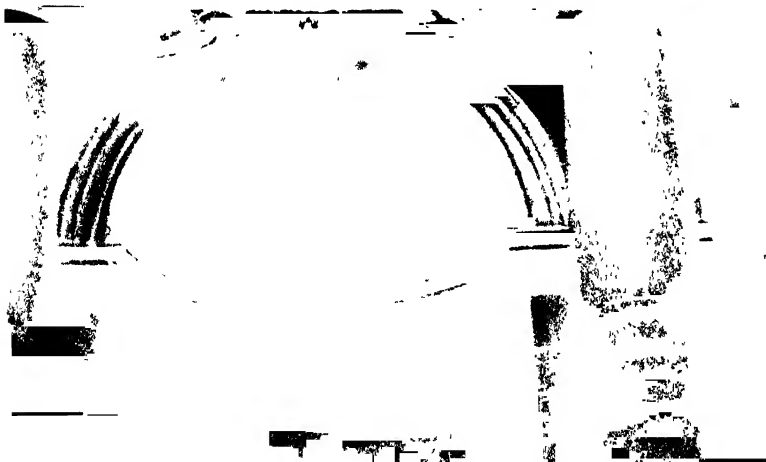


After the capture of Berlin, the combat men of the Soviet Army left inscriptions on the walls of the Reichstag which record the glorious road covered in battle by their various units in the course of the Great Patriotic War. These inscriptions were laconic: "From Stalingrad to Berlin," "We fought our way from Leningrad to Berlin," "Warsaw-Berlin." On top of the Reichstag a group of Soviet combat men of the 73rd Auto Transport Regiment left the following inscription:

"1941-1945 Urals-Moscow-Berlin,

We brought shells, bombs, and men who smashed this lair of beasts."

Autographs of the victors. Inscriptions made by Soviet Army men on the walls of the Reichstag



THE BATTLE OF BERLIN

TWO AND A HALF YEARS AGO the Soviet Army hoisted the Flag of Victory over Berlin and consummated, in conjunction with the Allies, the utter defeat of fascist Germany. The Berlin operation, which rung down the curtain on the Great Patriotic War of the Soviet people, represented the acme of Stalinist military science, and illustrated the perfection of the strategy and tactics of the Armed Forces of the Soviet Union.

* * *

In the spring of 1945 the troops of the First Byelorussian Front, after a successful offensive, reached the Oder and Neisse rivers and occupied a section of territory stretching from the shores of the Baltic to the town of Schenkendorf. About the same time, the troops of the First Ukrainian Front had pushed up to the Neisse from the south. Confronted with the organized resistance of the Germans who held strongly fortified positions here, the Soviet troops began to prepare for the attack on Berlin.

The fascist forces on the immediate Berlin direction consisted of over 500,000 men, and a large number of tanks and guns; they occupied strongly built positions on the western banks of the Oder and the Neisse, which they had prepared well in advance. Realizing that there was no avenue of retreat (only sixty kilometres, as the crow flies, separated them from Berlin) and that the fate of Hitler Germany depended on the outcome of the forthcoming battle, the Germans erected fortifications wherever the terrain permitted it.

About forty-five German divisions defended these fortifications. Berlin's numerous A.A. guns were levelled to meet the advancing Soviet tanks. The divisions were reinforced by men from the artillery, from tank units and special service outfits as well as from the military training schools and academies and by Volkssturm detachments recruited from fascist organizations.

The Soviet troops had a difficult task to solve—to deal a death blow to the massed enemy forces, in their well-fortified positions. The Soviet Army was able to solve this task brilliantly thanks to the remarkable strategic leadership of the great commander, Joseph Stalin. The Stalin plan provided for the simultaneous offensive by Soviet troops along an extensive front, the delivery of a series of major blows with the object of splitting up the enemy's defences and encircling and breaking up his forces, to be followed by the annihilation of the disunited German troops. The strategic objective pursued was not merely to rout the central grouping of the German forces and capture Berlin, but to cut Germany in two, thus making further resistance impossible.

On April 16, 1945 the Soviet troops launched their offensive. The Germans defended their positions stubbornly. But by April 19 their defences had been cracked and the Soviet troops started to put into effect their operative manoeuvre.

The northern assault group of the First Byelorussian Front launched its attack in a converging movement on Berlin from the northwest. The southern assault group of the same front struck against the southeast suburbs of the city, while the central group punched home on the shortest path—due west.

The troops of the First Ukrainian Front also launched attacks from several directions. The main assault group, consisting of tank units under Generals Pavel Rybalko and

Dmitri Lelyushenko, pressed home their attacks in a north-westerly direction with the object of reaching the Potsdam district and effecting a junction with the troops of the First Byelorussian Front, thus completing the encirclement of the German fascist forces engaged on the Berlin direction. Other units of the First Ukrainian Front had orders to make a drive into the southern suburbs of Berlin and cleave the encircled group of the enemy forces.

On the night of April 24, only nine days after the offensive had been launched, the troops of the two fronts met in the district of Potsdam. As many as 200,000 German soldiers and officers were trapped. By that time Soviet forces, converging from different directions on the southern suburbs of Berlin, cut the surrounded enemy group into two.

The Germans tried their hardest to prevent our troops from carrying out this operation. While the battle was on they brought over twelve more fresh divisions, drawn partly from the Anglo-American front. The vehemence of the Soviet advance, however, frustrated the enemy's plans.

Then began the liquidation of the surrounded enemy forces, the fierce battle for the possession of Berlin.

The enemy group surrounded in the woods southeast of Berlin made several ineffectual attempts to break through the iron ring. By the 30th of April it was completely annihilated.

The German army surrounded in Berlin put up a fierce resistance. The greatest battle in the history of wars raged night and day for twelve successive days.

The Germans fought with the despair of the doomed. They kept building new fortifications at every step. Battles went on in the air, on the ground, and even underground, in the dark, gloomy tunnels of the Berlin subway. Every house, every floor, every room was bitterly fought for.

The Soviet soldiers mopped up the remnants of the Hitler troops entrenched in Berlin, after a fierce and bitter struggle. Where the Soviet soldiers were unable to make headway through the city streets, they climbed over roofs and garrets, crawled through underground passages, subway tunnels and sewage mains.

The Soviet Army men pressed the enemy back, step by step, to the centre of the city. By the end of April the Hitler troops were pent up in a small area. On the night preceding the First of May, German officers carrying a flag of truce came to General Chuikov's Headquarters to sue for an armistice. The Soviet Command refused the German proposal, declaring that they would accept nothing but unconditional surrender. This the Germans did not agree to. The terrible voice of the Soviet artillery spoke up once more, and the assault of the last enemy strongholds was renewed.

The remnants of the German army capitulated on May 2. By this time the Flag of Victory fluttered on the dome of the Reichstag building where it had been hoisted by Soviet Army men on April 30. On May 8 the Act of Unconditional Surrender of the German Armed Forces was signed in Berlin.

* * *

The Berlin operation, carried out in record time by the Soviet troops, was the last weight that turned the scale of Hitler Germany's fate. The armed forces of the Soviet Union under the leadership of the great Stalin did their duty to their country nobly.



Monument to Soviet fighters who fell in the Battle of Berlin



The square in front of the Reichstag. May 1, 1945



Drawing by

KARL MARX

KARL MARX

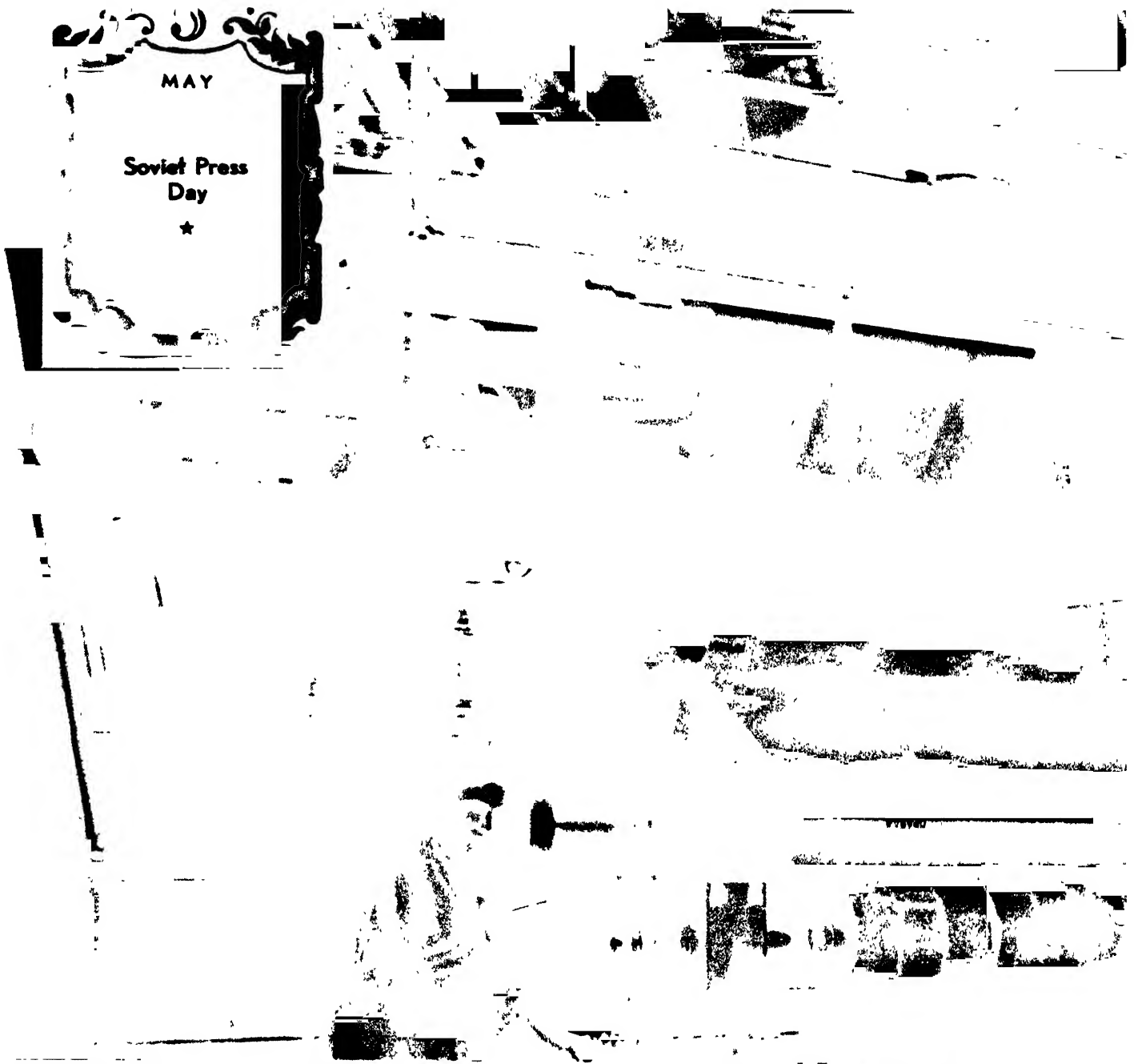
(1818-1883)

KARL MARX, great thinker, founder of scientific Communism—the revolutionary doctrine of the proletariat—and leader of the international working class, was the author of brilliant books on political economy, history and philosophy. Concurrently with his work of creating and developing his revolutionary theory, he directed the revolutionary struggle of the proletariat. He discovered the laws of the rise, development and doom of capitalism, and thereby scientifically proved that the violent overthrow of capitalism and its replacement by Communism were inevitable.

Marx was born in Treves, Germany, on May 5, 1818, and commenced his revolutionary activities at a very early age. On graduating from the university in 1841, he began to take an active part in the political struggle. In 1842 he was an active member of the staff of the *Rheinische Zeitung*, the most progressive newspaper in Germany at that time, and became its editor. In March 1843 the newspaper was suppressed by the Prussian government. In 1843 Marx married the friend of his childhood, Jenny von Westphalen, who, to the end of her life, shared with him all the hardships and difficulties of the revolutionary struggle. After the *Rheinische Zeitung* was suppressed, Marx was obliged to leave Germany and he went to Paris. There, in 1844, he met Frederick Engels, who became Marx's devoted and life-long friend. Together they took a most active part in the seething life of the revolutionary groups that existed in Paris at that time and, combating the various doctrines of petty-bourgeois socialism, they worked out the theory and tactics of revolutionary proletarian socialism. In 1844 the *Deutsche-Französische Jahrbücher*, edited by Marx and Arnold Ruge, appeared. In 1845 Marx was deported from Paris on the insistence of the Prussian government and he went to Belgium. In 1847 the secret society known as the Communist League was formed under Marx's direction. This was the first attempt to organize an international Communist Party. At the end of 1847 and the beginning of 1848 Marx, jointly with Engels, on the instructions of the Second Congress of the Communist League, wrote the famous *Manifesto of the Communist Party*, which was the first program of the revolutionary party of the international proletariat. In this document, which is of world historical importance, Marx and Engels with the clarity of genius expounded the Communist world outlook, gave scientific proof of the historical inevitability of the proletarian revolution, and revealed the revolutionary mission of the proletariat to build Communist society. The keynote of the entire *Communist Manifesto* is the dictatorship of the proletariat. As Lenin wrote: "This little booklet is worth whole volumes: to this day its spirit inspires and motivates the entire organized and fighting proletariat of the civilized world." During the bourgeois revolution in Germany in 1848 Marx went to live in Cologne; for his revolutionary activities he was tried and deported from Germany. He went to Paris, but after the

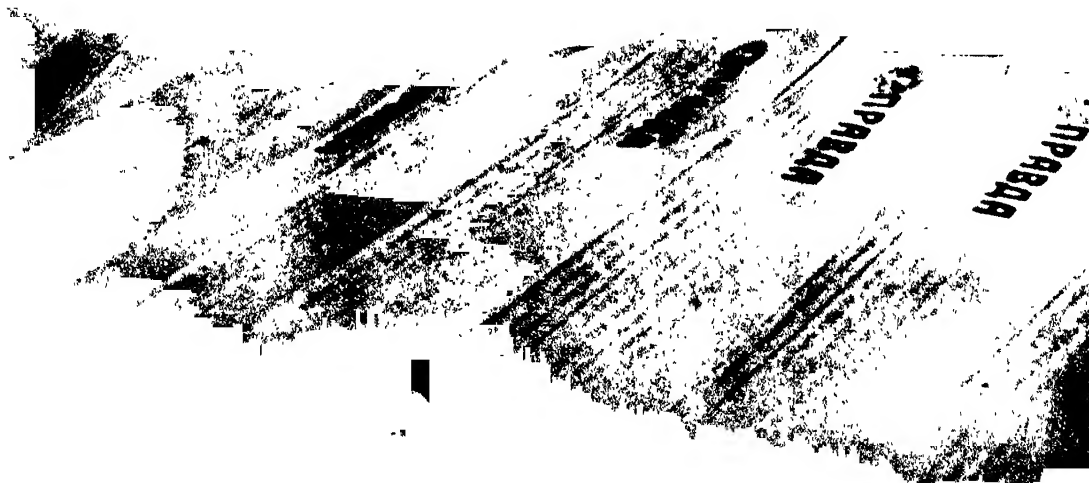
demonstration of June 13, 1849 against the attack upon the Constitution, he was deported from that city. He spent the rest of his life in London. Conditions of life in exile were extremely hard; Marx and his family suffered want, and he was only the constant and self-sacrificing assistance of Engels that enabled Marx to finish his great work *Capital* and save him from perishing under the burden of poverty.

Marx conducted an enormous amount of scientific work. He was a great scholar who stood at the summit of the progressive science of his day. He knew the principal European languages, including Russian, and studied the natural sciences and mathematics. At the same time he developed intense revolutionary activity. He was the leading spirit of the First International, author of its most important documents, a member of its General Council. He organized support and assistance for the Paris Commune, for he realized its great historical importance as the prototype of the proletarian dictatorship of the proletariat. He wrote works of the highest order. In London he wrote his major scientific work, *Capital*, the first volume of which appeared in 1867. The second and third volumes were prepared for the press and published by Engels after Marx's death. *Capital* is a work of genius in which all the fundamental tenets of the Marxist theory are expounded. In it Marx made a strictly scientific analysis of the foundations of capitalism as a historically determined mode of production, revealed the economic motion of bourgeois society in its rise, development and decline, and gave scientific proof of the inevitable doom of capitalism and the triumph of Communism. Lenin referred to *Capital* as "that prime and basic work in which scientific socialism is expounded." In addition to the already mentioned *Manifesto of the Communist Party* and *Capital*, Marx, in conjunction with Engels, wrote *The Holy Family*, *Criticism of Critical Criticism* (1844) and *German Ideology* (1845). Marx also wrote *The Poverty of Philosophy* (1847), *Contribution to the Critique of Political Economy* (1859), *Theory of Surplus Value* and *Wage Labour and Capital* (1867), *Value, Price and Profit*, and also a number of historical works such as: *The Class Struggles in France* (1850), *Eighteenth Brumaire of Louis Bonaparte* (1851-1852), *Civil War in France* (1871), *Critique of the Gotha Program* (1875), and others. The correspondence of Marx and Engels is a mirror of scientific knowledge. The *Collected Works of Marx and Engels* have been published in the U.S.S.R. in twenty-nine volumes by the Institute of Marx-Engels-Lenin. Marx died in London on March 14, 1883. To the end of his life he was the counselor and inspirer of the workers' parties in all countries and waged an uncompromising struggle against the enemies of the working class. The tenets of Marx, developed by Lenin and Stalin, have triumphed on one-sixth of the globe—in the U.S.S.R.



Above: Rotary press of the newspaper Pravda

Below: Pravda just off the press



PRESS DAY

PRESS DAY, marked annually throughout the Soviet Union on May 5th, was instituted in 1922 by decision of the Eleventh Congress of the Russian Communist Party (Bolsheviks), in connection with the tenth anniversary of the newspaper *Pravda*.

The first issue of *Pravda*, a mass political working-class paper organized by Stalin at the direct request of Lenin, appeared on May 5, 1912.

Under Stalin's guidance *Pravda* became a militant organ of the Bolshevik Party and an organizer of the Russian working class. Vital problems of the life and the struggle of the proletariat found immediate and trenchant exposition on the pages of *Pravda*, which soon won great popularity among the workers of Russia. Naturally, the newspaper was systematically persecuted by the tsarist government. It was suppressed eight times between 1912 and 1914, and each time it reappeared under a new but similar name: *Za Pravdu* (*For Truth*), *Put Pravdy* (*Path of Truth*), *Trudovaya Pravda* (*Labour Truth*).

As part of its preparations for the first imperialist world war, the tsarist government intensified its persecution of the labour press. In order to strengthen the labour press and to broaden its ties with the masses of the working people, May 5, 1914 was proclaimed Labour Press Day. On that day the circulation of *Pravda* was increased to 130,000 copies, a tremendous figure for those days. More than 21,500 rubles were donated to the *Pravda* fund from people in all parts of Russia.

In the U.S.S.R. private ownership of printshops and publishing houses has been abolished. They belong either to the state, or to the trade unions and other public organizations.

The Soviet press serves the interests of the working people—the workers, peasants and the intelligentsia. A press of, by and for the people, it presents a truthful and objective picture of home and foreign events.

The Soviet press maintains close contact with its readers. Every newspaper has hundreds of regular contributors from among the population at large. *Pravda* receives from 12,000 to 13,000 letters from its readers every month.

Soviet newspapermen devote themselves heart and soul to their work. Many have been decorated for their efforts during the Great Patriotic War. Sergei Borzenko, a special correspondent of *Pravda*, and Caesar Kunikov, onetime editor of the newspaper *Mashinostroeniye* (*Machine Building*) have won the high title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

Here are some facts and figures about newspaper, magazine and book publishing in the Soviet Union:

There are more than 7,000 newspapers with a total circulation of about 30,000,000. All the republics, territories, regions, districts, cities and most of the rural districts have their own newspapers, printed in the languages of the peoples inhabiting the country. In the Ukrainian S.S.R. alone there are 13 central, 49 regional and 785 city and district newspapers.

Eight hundred and ninety-five magazines and other periodicals are published in the U.S.S.R. Particularly important are the scientific periodicals, of which 71 deal with the natural sciences, mathematics and geography; 160 with political, social and economic questions; 112 with industry and engineering; 36 with agriculture; 59 with medicine; 44 with pedagogy; 16 with art; 83 with literature and fiction. There are 10 children's magazines.

Since 1918 a total of 873,000 books and pamphlets has been published in the U.S.S.R. in an aggregate printing of 10,978,000,000 copies.

A count made just before the late war revealed that there were six times as many books in the country per person than in tsarist times. The average printing of Soviet books had increased almost fivefold compared with 1913.

One-fourth of all the books that appear are printed in languages other than Russian. More than 40 peoples inhabiting the multi-national Soviet state have acquired a written language of their own since the Great October Socialist Revolution.

Books on political and socio-economic topics account for more than one-fifth of the total printing, the classics of Marxism and Leninism occupying first place among them. Between 1918 and 1947, a total of 721,000,000 copies of these classics have been published, including 592,000,000 copies in Russian, 116,000,000 copies in 100 other languages of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. and 13,000,000 copies in foreign languages.

Joseph Stalin's classic work, *History of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (Bolsheviks)*, which first appeared on October 1, 1938, has been most widely circulated. In the space of nine years 33,148,000 copies have been issued in the U.S.S.R. Of this number 26,923,000 are in Russian, 5,165,000 in other languages of the peoples of the U.S.S.R., and 1,060,000 in foreign languages. Tens of millions of Soviet people and hundreds of thousands of people abroad study the history of the Bolshevik Party from Stalin's book.

Stalin's book *On the Great Patriotic War of the Soviet Union* has been published in 58 languages in a total printing of 16,000,000. This book played a tremendous role in organizing and mobilizing the Soviet people for the struggle against the German invaders and the Japanese imperialists.

Works of literature are published extensively: some 67,183 titles in a total printing of more than 1,200,000,000 between 1928 and 1947.

Foreign and Russian classics are widely published in both *de luxe* and popular editions. In Soviet times the works of Alexander Pushkin have been put out in 35,000,000 copies in 76 languages; of Leo Tolstoy, in 26,200,000 copies in 65 languages; of Maxim Gorky, in 45,000,000 copies in 66 languages.

Novels and short stories by contemporary Soviet writers enjoy great popularity. Sixteen million copies of the novels of Mikhail Sholokhov have been issued in 53 languages; 12,000,000 copies of the works of Alexei Tolstoy in 38 languages; 4,900,000 copies of the works of Nikolai Ostrovsky in 47 languages.

Since 1918 a total of 167,000,000 copies of foreign books of fine literature have been issued. Shakespeare's works have been published in 20 languages in more than 1,500,000 copies; Victor Hugo's in 41 languages in printings exceeding 4,000,000. Large editions of the works of Dickens, Thackeray, Balzac and Guy de Maupassant have also been published.

Of the contemporary foreign writers, Romain Rolland, Theodore Dreiser, J. B. Priestley and J. Hasek have been particularly widely published.

Such, in brief, is a picture of the Soviet press. Expressing the basic interests of the people, the Soviet press is today waging a persistent struggle against the instigators of a new world war and is working for a secure, democratic peace.

In this struggle it has the support of millions of the common people the world over.



Painting by A. Shimko

MEETING OF THE RUSSIAN PHYSICO-CHEMISTRY SOCIETY IN ST. PETERSBURG, MAY 7, 1895
Alexander Popov demonstrating his invention—the first radio receiving set in the world



RADIO DAY

RADIO, one of the greatest achievements of human genius, was born in Russia. A Russian scientist was the first to produce an apparatus which was to become the world's greatest means of communication and diffusing culture. On May 7, 1895, at a meeting of the Russian Physical and Chemical Society in St. Petersburg, Alexander Stepanovich Popov, a teacher of the Kronstadt Mine School, read a paper on *The Relation of Metallic Powders to Electric Oscillations*, and demonstrated the first radio receiving set in the world. The day on which Popov first demonstrated his invention to Russian scientists is considered the birthday of radio. In 1945, on the 50th anniversary of this date, the Soviet government decreed that May 7 be annually marked in the U.S.S.R. as Radio Day.

Popov gave his country the best of his strength and knowledge. He received several offers to work abroad, offers that were accompanied by promises of wealth. "No," Popov declared, "I am a Russian and all my knowledge, all my labour, all my achievements are at the disposal of my own country. . . . And if not my contemporaries, then, perhaps, future generations will understand how great was my devotion to my country and how happy I am that it was in Russia and not abroad that a new means of communication was discovered."

In 1900 the jury of the International Electro-Technical Exhibition in Paris awarded Popov a gold medal and diploma for his radio station.

Premature death (Popov died at the age of 46) cut short the activities of this great Russian scientist. Popov's successors, Russian scientists and engineers, continued his work in the further development and perfection of radio, but radio engineering did not make rapid progress until after the Great October Socialist Revolution.

The history of the development of radio after 1917 is closely linked with the names of Lenin and Stalin. Lenin's radio address on the overthrow of the Provisional Government may be practically considered as the world's first radio broadcast.

The first Soviet broadcasting station, powered at about 12 kilowatts, was opened in Moscow in 1922. This was, at the time, the most powerful radio broadcasting station in the world, and by the beginning of the third Five-Year Plan period there were already 93 such stations in the country. On the eve of World War II, the Soviet Union was leading Europe in number and power of radio stations. The Stalin Five-Year Plans provided the necessary industries to manufacture up-to-date radio equipment. During the Patriotic War the radio industry was able to supply the heroic Soviet Army with all the radio apparatus it needed.

The Hitlerites inflicted huge losses on the U.S.S.R.'s radio communications. Dozens of the biggest radio stations and broadcasting centres were destroyed. Soviet radio engineers are now making good these losses. The Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy

of the U.S.S.R. for 1946-50 provides that "the means of communication in the regions that were under German occupation shall be fully restored and further developed." In addition to the building of several thousand local radio stations, 55 radio telegraph and telephone stations will be built during the Five-Year Plan period to improve communications with the distant republics of the U.S.S.R. Twenty-eight new radio broadcasting stations will be built and 3,000,000 radio sets of the latest models will be manufactured in this period.

Television and radiolocation will be further developed. The Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. will conduct large-scale research work in the field of radio physics and engineering. The army of Soviet radio engineers will be augmented by new specialists trained in institutions of higher learning.

Soviet radio is not only a fast and dependable means of communication, it is also an excellent means of educating the working people both politically and culturally. Every day millions of Soviet people in all corners of the country listen to broadcasts in more than 70 languages; the programs include the latest news, important government decrees, Communist Party decisions, lectures and speeches by scientists, performances by actors, and readings by authors and poets. Leading people from all branches of socialist labour appear before the microphone: engineers, innovators in industry, Stakhanovite workers, agronomists, zootechnicians and collective farmers who have scored successes in their various fields, and prominent pedagogues, educators of the new generation of builders of Communism.

All of them make their vast experience available to millions of listeners—Soviet workers, peasants and intellectuals.

The Soviet government sets a high value on the work of radio engineers. Thus, the builders of a new high-power radio station constructed during the Patriotic War and opened in 1943 were awarded a Stalin Prize. Public initiative in radio is widespread in the U.S.S.R. There is a Society of Radio Engineering and Telecommunications named for Popov.

Radio Clubs are active in many cities. The Bureau of the Central Radio Club in Moscow is headed by Hero of the Soviet Union Ernest Krenkel, a participant in the North Pole expedition.

There is a radio section in the State Polytechnical Museum. Radio engineering exhibitions and demonstrations of radio equipment are often organized in various towns of the Soviet Union. A popular science magazine entitled *Radio* is published monthly. Questions of radio communication are dealt with in other popular science magazines and in the general press.

Radio Day was instituted by the government with a view to popularizing Soviet science and engineering in this field and encouraging amateur radio activities; it is celebrated by millions of Soviet radio fans every year.

"VICTORY" VASE

A MONUMENTAL PORCELAIN VASE was made by the workers of the Lomonosov Porcelain Factory in Leningrad in honour of the first anniversary of the victory over Germany. The vase was presented to Generalissimo of the Soviet Union J. V. Stalin, who led the people to victory.

Stalin, thanking the makers of the vase, said:

"I thank the management and workers of the Lomonosov Porcelain Factory in Leningrad for this outstanding creation, the "Victory" vase, made in honour of the victory over fascist Germany. I wish you further successes in your work."

The vase is two and a half metres high and 71 centimetres in diameter.

Stalin's portrait framed in gold laurel leaves occupies the centre of the "Victory" vase; a painting on the opposite side shows the victory salute on the Neva River in Leningrad on May 9, 1945. Lower down there are six medallions depicting scenes from the Great Patriotic War. The words from J. V. Stalin's address to the people on May 9, 1945, "Our Great Patriotic War has terminated in our complete victory. Glory to our great people, the victor people!" are engraved on gold plates. At the foot of the vase, engraved in gold, are two groups symbolizing the unity between the front and the rear in the days of the war.

The "Victory" vase is on display in one of the big halls of the Tretyakov State Picture Gallery in Moscow.



STALIN'S ADDRESS TO THE PEOPLE

May 9, 1945



COMRADES! FELLOW COUNTRYMEN AND COUNTRYWOMEN! The great day of victory over Germany has arrived. Fascist Germany, forced to her knees by the Red Army and the troops of our Allies, has admitted defeat and has announced her unconditional surrender.

On May 7 a preliminary act of surrender was signed in Rheims. On May 8, in Berlin, representatives of the German High Command, in the presence of representatives of the Supreme Command of the Allied troops and of the Supreme Command of the Soviet troops, signed the final act of surrender, which came into effect at 24 hours on May 8.

Knowing the wolfish habits of the German rulers who regard treaties and agreements as scraps of paper, we have no grounds for accepting their word. However, this morning, the German troops, in conformity with the act of surrender, began *en masse* to lay down their arms and surrender to our troops. This is not a scrap of paper. It is the actual capitulation of the armed forces of Germany. True, one group of German troops in the region of Czechoslovakia still refuses to surrender, but I hope the Red Army will succeed in bringing it to its senses.

We now have full grounds for saying that the historic day of the final defeat of Germany, the day of our people's great victory over German imperialism, has arrived.

The great sacrifices we have made for the freedom and independence of our country, the incalculable privation and suffering our people have endured during the war, our intense labours in the rear and at the front, laid at the altar of our motherland, have not been in vain; they have been crowned by com-

plete victory over the enemy. The age-long struggle of the Slavonic peoples for their existence and independence has ended in victory over the German aggressors and German tyranny.

Henceforth, the great banner of the freedom of the peoples and peace between the peoples will fly over Europe.

Three years ago Hitler publicly stated that his task included the dismemberment of the Soviet Union and the severance from it of the Caucasus, the Ukraine, Byelorussia, the Baltic and other regions. He definitely said: "We shall destroy Russia so that she shall never be able to rise again." This was three years ago. But Hitler's insane ideas were fated to remain unrealized—the course of the war scattered them to the winds like dust. Actually, the very opposite of what the Hitlerites dreamed of in their delirium occurred. Germany is utterly defeated. The German troops are surrendering. The Soviet Union is triumphant, although it has no intention of either dismembering or destroying Germany.

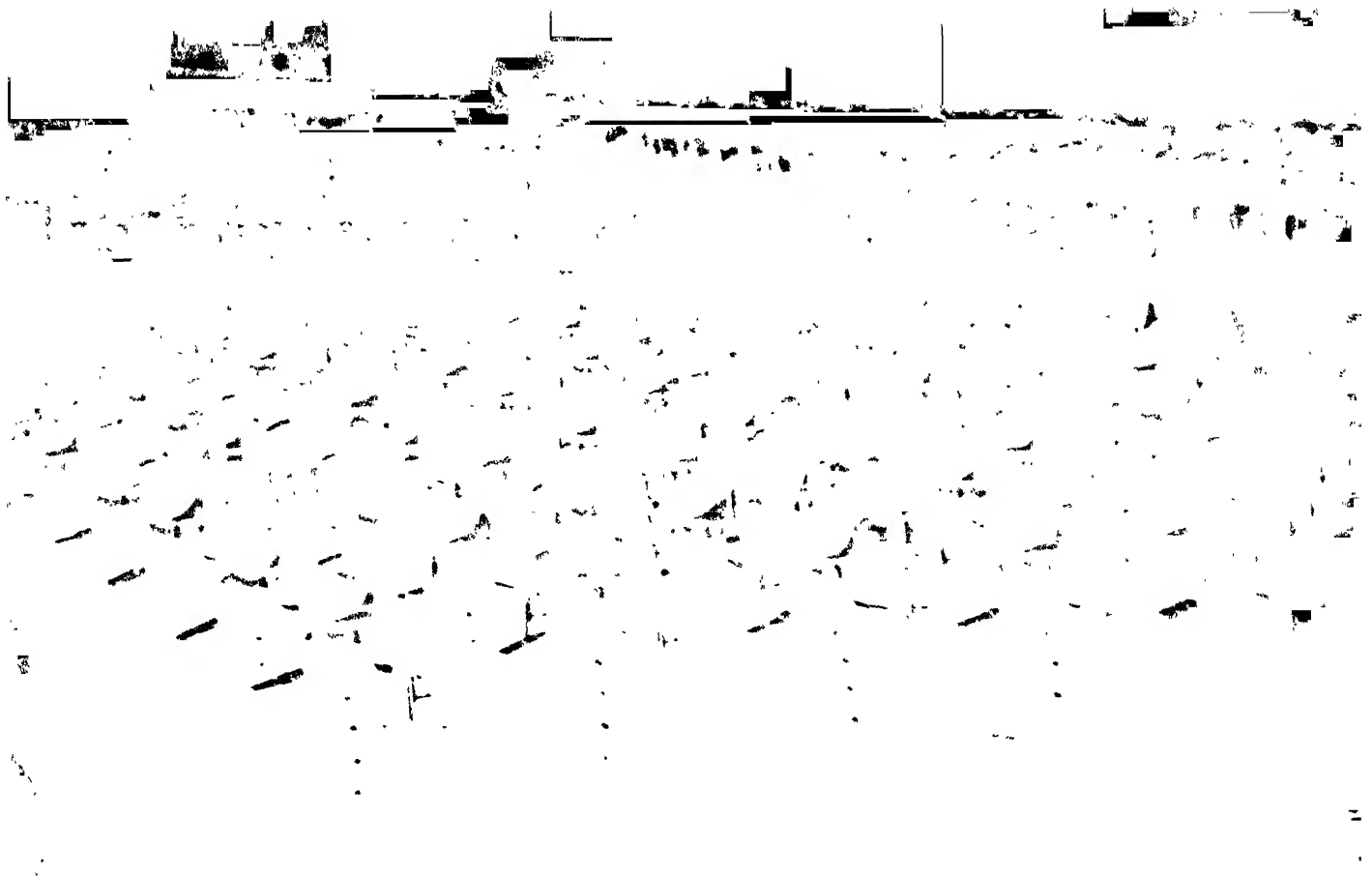
Comrades! Our Great Patriotic War has terminated in our complete victory. The period of war in Europe has closed. A period of peaceful development has been ushered in.

Congratulations on our victory, my dear fellow countrymen and countrywomen!

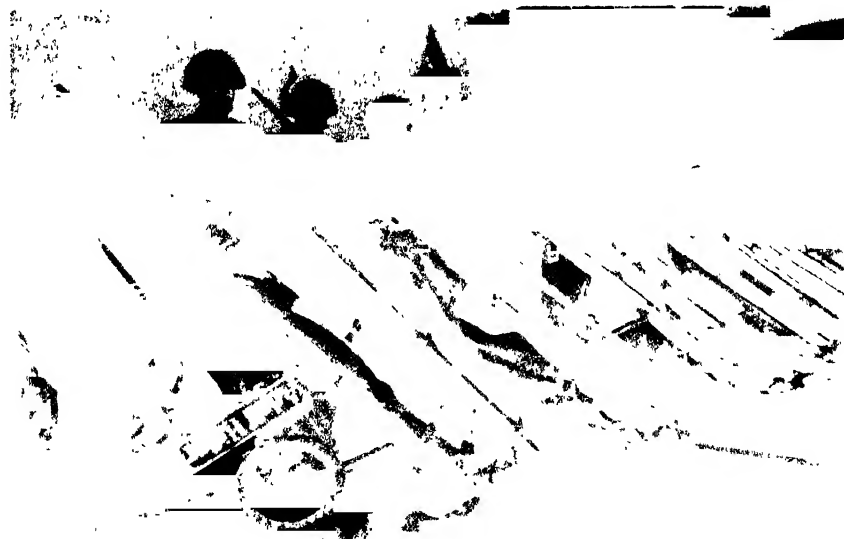
Glory to our heroic Red Army, which upheld the independence of our country and achieved victory over the enemy!

Glory to our great people, the victor people!

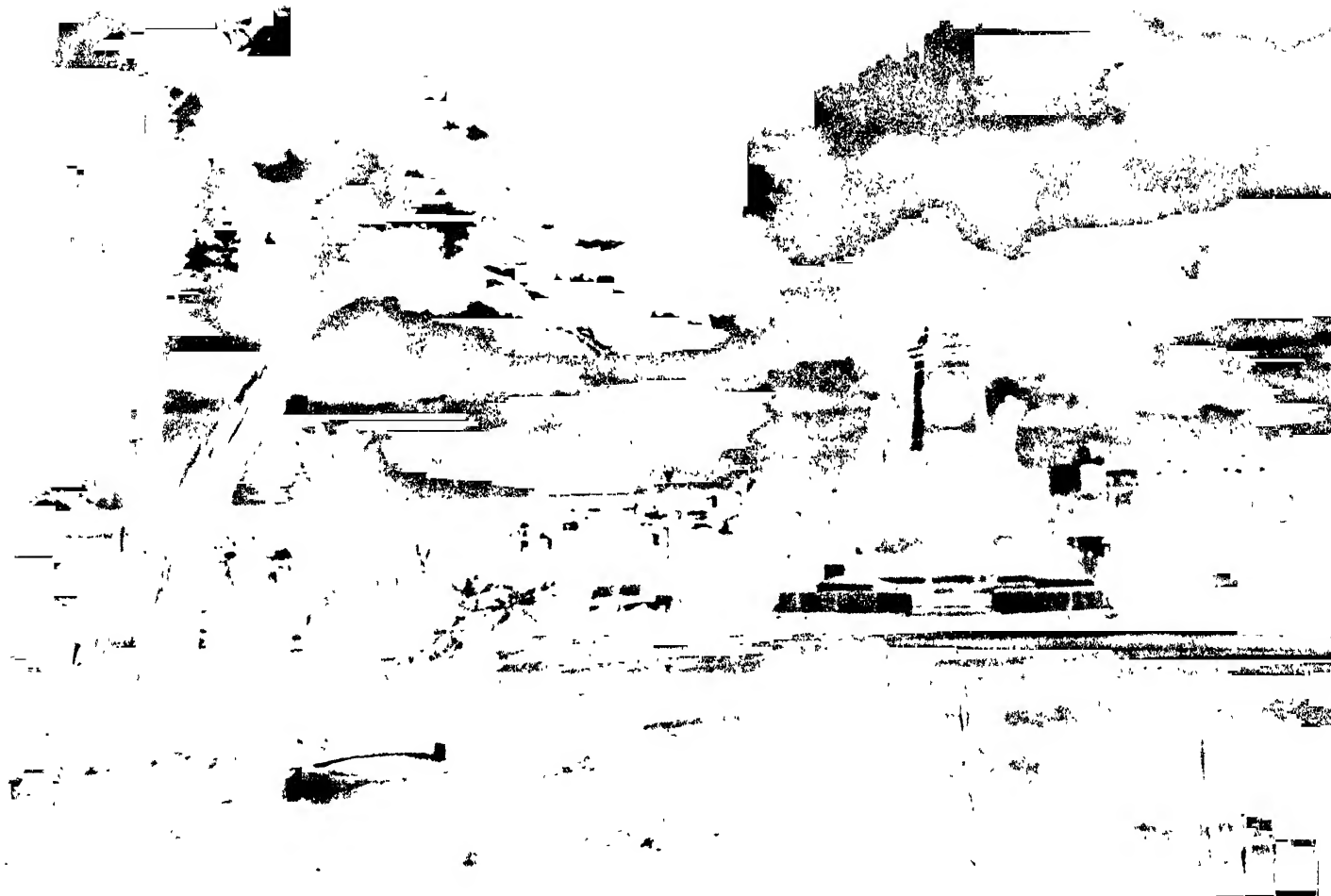
Eternal glory to the heroes who fell fighting the enemy and who gave their lives for the freedom and happiness of our people!



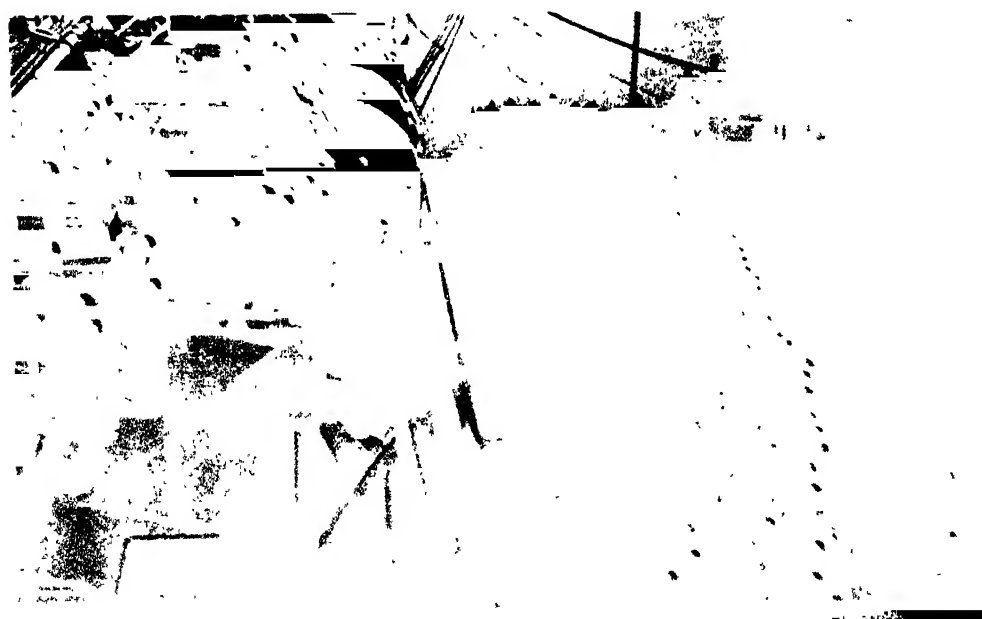
VICTORY PARADE ON RED SQUARE. MOSCOW, 1945



VICTORY PARADE
Soviet Army men throwing the captured Hitlerite banners to the ground



MONUMENT TO TOTLEBEN ON ISTORICHESKY BOULEVARD IN SEVASTOPOL



EMBARKATION OF A LANDING PARTY SENT TO REINFORCE THE DEFENDERS OF SEVASTOPOL,
THE HERO-CITY, DURING THE GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR

SEVASTOPOL—CITY OF RUSSIAN GLORY

THE CRIMEA was annexed to Russia in 1783 and a year later Sevastopol was founded. It soon became the central base of the Russian Navy.

When, in the middle of the nineteenth century, Turkey and her European allies aimed to weaken Russia's positions in the Black Sea, they chose to direct their main blow at Sevastopol. The war broke out in 1853.

In the fall of 1854 the Anglo-Franco-Turkish fleet, which had a tremendous superiority over the Russian flotilla, entered the Black Sea. The enemy had assembled over 360 war vessels: battleships, huge transports laden with troops, artillery and supplies, and numerous smaller auxiliary craft.

The fleet dropped anchor near Eupatoria. On September 8, the invading army plunged into battle in the valley of the Alma River. Despite the great numerical superiority of the enemy the Russians inflicted heavy losses upon them.

The withdrawal of the Russian troops, ordered by Commander-in-Chief Prince Menshikov after the battle of Alma, opened to the enemy the way to Sevastopol. The fort of Sevastopol was strongly fortified from the sea, but had no protection against land attack. The garrison of the fort was miserably small. Admirals Pavel Nakhimov and Vladimir Kornilov, in command of the defence of Sevastopol, began to hurriedly fortify the city.

Being cognizant of the inability of the Russian fleet, consisting mostly of sailing vessels, to successfully stand up to the allied armada which contained many steam vessels, the Russian Command gave orders to scuttle the ships at the mouth of Sevastopol Bay in order to block the entry of enemy craft. Artillery removed from the vessels was set up on the stronghold's bastions while the fleet's personnel was poured into the scant ranks of its defenders.

On October 5 the besiegers let loose upon Sevastopol a fierce cannonade during which Admiral Kornilov was killed. Mortally wounded and losing consciousness, he cried out: "Hold Sevastopol at all cost!" Admiral Nakhimov remained in command of the defending forces.

Thus began the epic defence of Sevastopol. It continued for 349 days. Violent bombardment carried off many victims. Sieging action alternated with furious assaults, but nothing could break the steadfastness of Sevastopol's defenders.

Fully realizing, in the face of the immense superiority of the enemy in men and materiel, the enormous difficulty of defending the city and knowing that it would require heavy sacrifice, Admiral Nakhimov untiringly strengthened the city's defences and inspired the garrison to fight to the last drop of blood.

"We will all die here," said Nakhimov more than once, "but the enemy will gain nothing but dead bodies and ruins!"

These words came true. The enemy took not Sevastopol, but only the rubble of the valorous city which on August 27, 1855 was abandoned by the Russian troops on orders of the High Command.

* * *

After the Crimean War Sevastopol lent itself to rapid revival and the Black Sea fleet became yet more numerous and powerful.

As the country's formidable and watchful sentinel in the Black Sea, Sevastopol sacredly upheld its glorious traditions which were destined to bloom with fresh vigour in the trying period of the Great Patriotic War.

Early in November of 1941 a German motorized division attacked the city from the north. However, it ran against a strong and penetrating land defence in that same valley where

in 1854 the Russian army gave battle to the landed enemy forces. The heroic defence of the approaches to the city and the withering fire of long-range coast artillery frustrated the enemy's attempts to capture it. The Germans were compelled to set up a blockade.

In December 1941, after meticulous preparation, the enemy launched a determined offensive. The Germans drew up a formidable array of artillery, mortars and machine guns with an ample supply of ammunition. On December 17 their artillery opened tornado fire. Squadrons of German planes ceaselessly attacked the city from the air, strewing it with bombs. The battle lasted several days, but the Germans again failed to break through our defence.

In the spring of 1942 the Germans concentrated huge fresh forces near Sevastopol and on June 7 began to storm the city. Tides of violent enemy attack broke against the rock-like firmness of the valiant fort. The approaches to Sevastopol were cluttered with thousands of dead German bodies and the debris of smashed materiel. The city trembled under the burst of artillery shells and air bombs.

After a tense struggle and at the cost of terrific casualties, the Germans eventually succeeded in wedging into our line of defence. Tank columns began to crawl toward the city. Demolished and wrapped in dense clouds of black smoke, Sevastopol was ablaze. It seemed that further resistance was impossible. Nevertheless, it continued, and only on the 3rd of July, after 250 days of heroic defence, our troops abandoned the ruins of the gallant city by order of the Supreme Command. During the period of Sevastopol's epic defence the Germans lost about 300,000 officers and men in killed and wounded.

The fall of Sevastopol was a grave loss but its gallant resistance vouched for the invincibility of the Russian people.

In the beginning of April, 1944 the Soviet Army took the offensive in the Crimea and, pursuing the enemy, approached Sevastopol.

For some two years the Germans had been erecting strong fortifications around the city. Our troops had to overcome numerous anti-tank ditches, mine fields and encumbered defiles. The Germans stubbornly resisted and launched frequent counter-attacks, but all this only increased their casualties.

The force of our onslaught mounted. The foe was compelled to abandon one position after another. Finally, supported by concentrated fire from both land and air, Soviet infantry and tanks crashed down on Sevastopol's inner defence line like an overwhelming avalanche. There was nothing that could check the tide. Our troops took Malakhov Kurgan, Korabelnaya and Rudolfova, the suburbs situated south of the city, and on May 9 occupied Sevastopol. Sustaining colossal casualties, the Germans retreated in confusion to Cape Khersones, whence, under protection of a hastily pitched line of defence, they hoped to reach Rumania by boat. However, their hopes proved futile. The defence of Cape Khersones was quickly breached. The Soviet Army cut the enemy off from the sea and completed the annihilation of the German fascist horde. Twenty-four thousand officers and men were taken prisoner.

The liberation of Sevastopol in 1944 was the triumph of the ideals of justice and valour; it is an example of Soviet strategy and military art, planned and carried out by the Command of the Soviet Army, by Stalin's genius; it is a brilliant page in the annals of the Great Patriotic War, one of those heroic epopees which forever remain in the memory of the people. The glory of the defenders of Sevastopol will not fade in the centuries to come.



THE MOSCOW SUBWAY. KIROV STATION



Construction of the fourth
subway line in Moscow



THE MOSCOW SUBWAY

THE MOSCOW SUBWAY is the pride of the Soviet capital. Every one of its installations is a real work of art. The stations, built to the plans of leading Soviet architects, are beautifully decorated with mural paintings, statues, bas-reliefs and mosaics, and are faced with coloured marbles that make each of them distinctive and unforgettable.

The bold structural methods employed and the cheerful architecture of the stations do not give the passenger the feeling that he is under the ground, as is the case with the subways of many cities. The effort to provide comfort for the people—the basic principle of Soviet construction methods—is strikingly demonstrated in the stations of Moscow's underground railway.

The subway in Moscow was built at an incredible speed.

In June 1931, the government of the U.S.S.R. decided to build a subway, and on May 15, 1935, regular train service began. The radial branches of the first line, 11.4 kilometres in length, linked a number of railway stations with the centre of the city, the bigger parks, theatres and stadiums. During the next three years the subway network grew to 26.5 kilometres. The routes followed by the underground lines and the location of stations were mapped out with due consideration given to the general reconstruction plan for Moscow.

During the war construction did not stop: in this period the third line was completed. Today the subway has 40 kilometres of double-track lines. The total length of the under-

ground lines increased 50 per cent during the war: 29 stations are now in operation.

The number of passengers carried by the Moscow subway gives it one of the top places in the world. Trains arrive at the stations every one and a half or two minutes. During its first five years, the subway transported 1,000,000,000; in the course of the next five years—1,900,000,000 passengers. Although on the average 1,700,000 people used the subway daily last year, there were days when it carried as many as 2,000,000 passengers. The stations are well lit and the excellent ventilation system assures an incessant supply of fresh air.

During the war the State Committee of Defence of the U.S.S.R. decided on the building of a fourth branch line, and at the time of writing the construction is at its height.

The new line, 19.3 kilometres in length, will encircle the central districts of the city. It will run under the busiest sections and will service densely populated residential districts, business centres, connecting them with the main streets and squares, and with seven of the most important railway termini. The average distance between the stations will be 1.6 kilometres—less than the distance between the stations operating at present. Big junctions are being built where the new line crosses the old ones. Altogether there will be 12 stations reached by escalators from the surface vestibules.

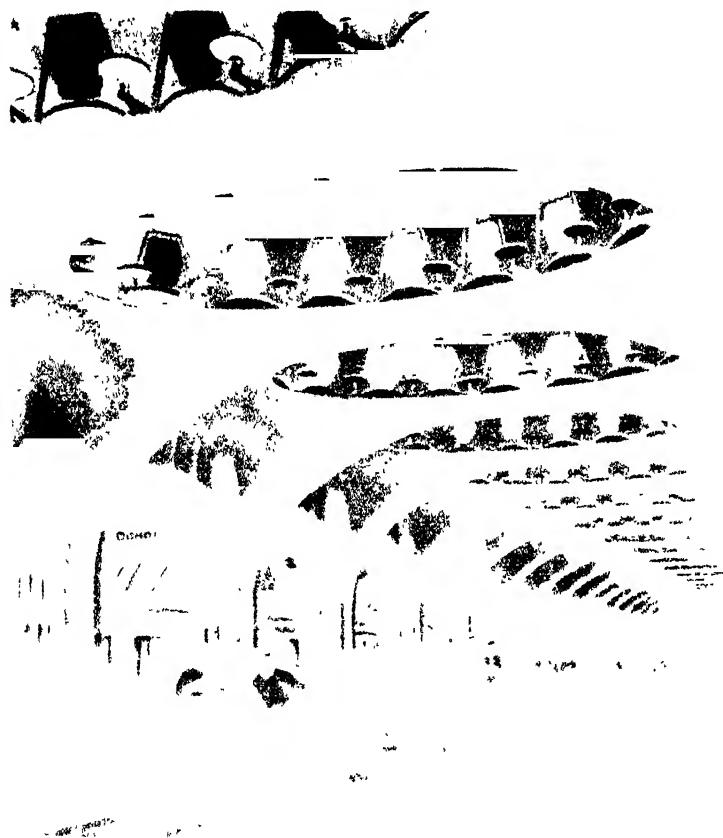
Outstanding Soviet architects, sculptors and painters are engaged in designing and decorating the stations and vestibules. The interiors of the new stations will be more beautiful than those built before and during the war. The sculptures and paintings illuminated by soft daylight lamps will be very effective. The main theme of the decorations will be the heroic exploits of the Soviet Army and the epic of creative labour performed by the workers and peasants of the U.S.S.R.

The line will be able to operate 34 pairs of eight-car trains an hour, travelling at a maximum speed of 65-70 kilometres per hour. When the new line is opened, the Moscow subway will have 41 stations and will be able to carry about 3,000,000 passengers a day.

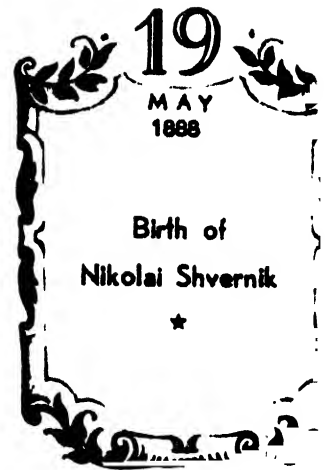
Many of those who are at present working in the subway as motormen, station masters and heads of depots, were formerly navvies in the subway, who with the help of the state learned new and better paid trades. Other veteran subway builders are at present working on the new line, some of them as engineers in charge of sections. Tatyana Fyodorova, who in 1933 worked on one of the first subway stations as a concrete layer, is now an engineer, a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. from one of the electoral districts of Moscow, and alternate member of the Council of the International Democratic Federation of Women. She is now supervising the building of one of the new stations.

The long and successful operation of the Moscow subway shows that the type of rolling stock, building methods, electric power system and the safety measures adopted have fully justified themselves. The experience gained in the Moscow subway is being applied to the construction of underground railways in Leningrad and Kiev started during the first post-war Five-Year Plan.

For its exemplary organization of passenger traffic and successfully employing new technique, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., by its decree of September 6, 1947, awarded the Moscow subway the Order of Lenin.



Platform of the Mayakovsky Station of the Moscow subway



NIKOLAI SHVERNIK

"UNPRECEDENTED MORAL AND POLITICAL UNITY, EXPRESSED IN THE UNBOUNDED LOVE OF THE SOVIET PEOPLE FOR THEIR SOCIALIST COUNTRY, HAS BEEN ESTABLISHED IN OUR MULTI-NATIONAL SOVIET UNION, BASED ON FRIENDSHIP AMONG THE PEOPLES."

N. Shvernik

NIKOLAI SHVERNIK

NIKOLAI MIKHAILOVICH SHVERNIK—alternate member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.) and President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., was born in a working-class family on May 19, 1888, in St. Petersburg. He spent six years in an orphanage, and in 1902 was apprenticed as a metal turner.

In 1905 he joined the Bolshevik Party and conducted underground activities in St. Petersburg, Nikolayev, Tula, Samara and other towns, repeatedly undergoing arrest.

After the revolution in February 1917 he was elected Chairman of the Factory Committee at the Pipe Works in Samara. During the revolution of October 1917 he was Chairman of the All-Russian Committee of Ordnance Workers. Shortly after the October Revolution he returned to Samara, where he was elected Chairman of the City Soviet. During the Civil War he took part in the fighting on the Eastern Front, first in a partisan unit, and later in the capacity of Political Commissar of the 2nd Simbirsk Regiment. In 1919 he took part in the fighting against Denikin.

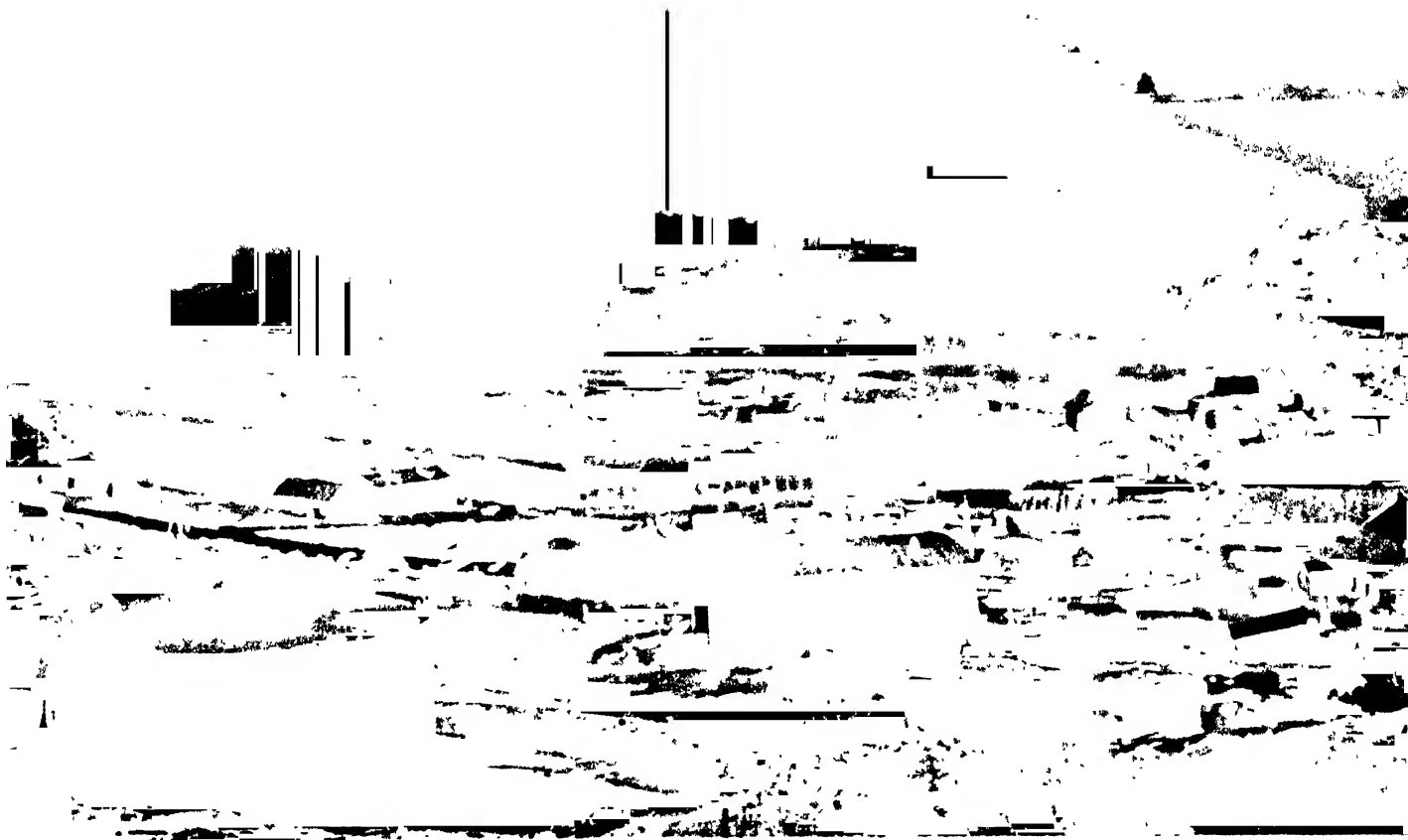
In 1921 he was elected Chairman of the Donetz District Committee of the Metal Workers' Union. At the Twelfth Congress of the Communist Party he was elected a member of the Central Control Commission of the Party. From 1923 to 1925 he was a member of the Presidium of the Central Control Commission of the C.P.S.U.(B.) and concurrently People's Commissar of the Workers' and Peasants' Inspection of the R.S.F.S.R.

In 1925 he was elected Secretary of the Leningrad Regional Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.). At the Fourteenth Congress of the Party he was elected a member of the Central Com-

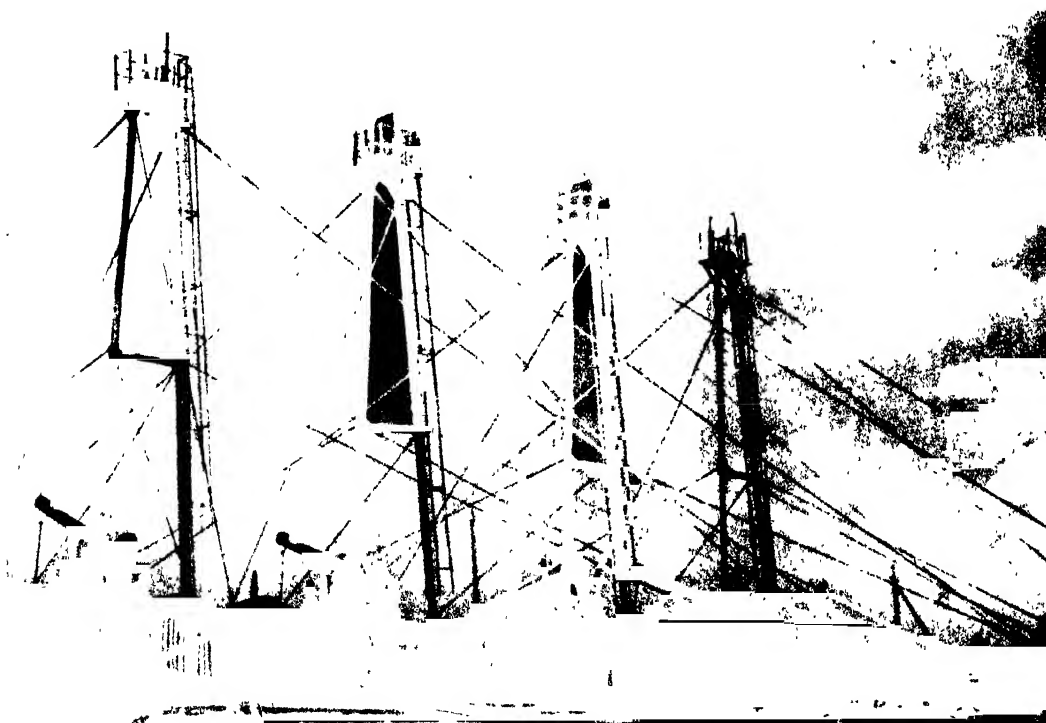
mittee of the C.P.S.U.(B.) and in 1926 Secretary of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.). In 1927 and 1928 he acted as Secretary of the Ural Regional Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.). In the beginning of 1929 he was elected Chairman of the Central Committee of the Metal Workers' Union and in 1930 First Secretary of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions, which post he held until March 15, 1944. At the Sixteenth Congress of the Party he was elected a member of the Organizing Bureau of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.).

N. M. Shvernik represents the Sverdlovsk Electoral District in the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. From January 1938 to March 1946 he was Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities. In 1938 he was awarded the Order of Lenin to mark his fiftieth birthday and in recognition of his outstanding services to the working class. At a plenary meeting of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.) which took place on March 22, 1939, after the Eighteenth Congress of the C.P.S.U.(B.), he was elected an alternate member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.). On February 1, 1944, the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. elected him First Vice President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. On March 4, 1944, the Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R. elected him President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R.

On January 24, 1946, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. awarded N. M. Shvernik the Order of Lenin for successfully carrying out the government's assignment in supplying labour power for the industry, new construction and the transport system during the Great Patriotic War. On March 19, 1946 he was elected President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.



THE STAVROPOL OIL-FIELD IN ONE OF THE DISTRICTS OF "SECOND BAKU." 1946



A NUMBER OF ACTIVE WELLS OF
THE KRASNOKAMSK OIL TRUST,
MOLOTOV REGION

NIKOLAI SHVERNIK

NIKOLAI MIKHAILOVICH SHVERNIK—alternate member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.) and President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., was born in a working-class family on May 19, 1888, in St. Petersburg. He spent six years in an orphanage, and in 1902 was apprenticed as a metal turner.

In 1905 he joined the Bolshevik Party and conducted underground activities in St. Petersburg, Nikolayev, Tula, Samara and other towns, repeatedly undergoing arrest.

After the revolution in February 1917 he was elected Chairman of the Factory Committee at the Pipe Works in Samara. During the revolution of October 1917 he was Chairman of the All-Russian Committee of Ordnance Workers. Shortly after the October Revolution he returned to Samara, where he was elected Chairman of the City Soviet. During the Civil War he took part in the fighting on the Eastern Front, first in a partisan unit, and later in the capacity of Political Commissar of the 2nd Simbirsk Regiment. In 1919 he took part in the fighting against Denikin.

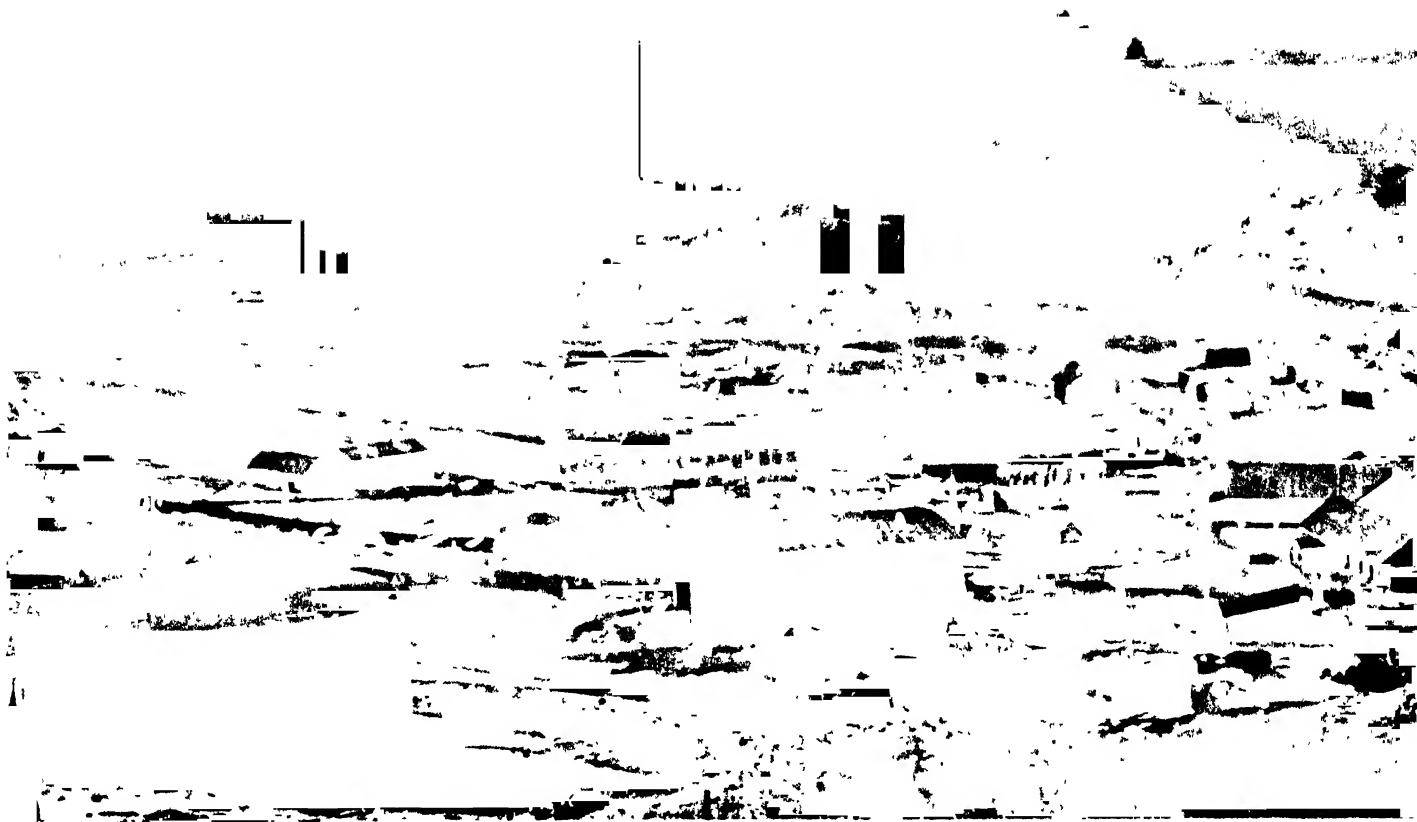
In 1921 he was elected Chairman of the Donetsk District Committee of the Metal Workers' Union. At the Twelfth Congress of the Communist Party he was elected a member of the Central Control Commission of the Party. From 1923 to 1925 he was a member of the Presidium of the Central Control Commission of the C.P.S.U.(B.) and concurrently People's Commissar of the Workers' and Peasants' Inspection of the R.S.F.S.R.

In 1925 he was elected Secretary of the Leningrad Regional Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.). At the Fourteenth Congress of the Party he was elected a member of the Central Com-

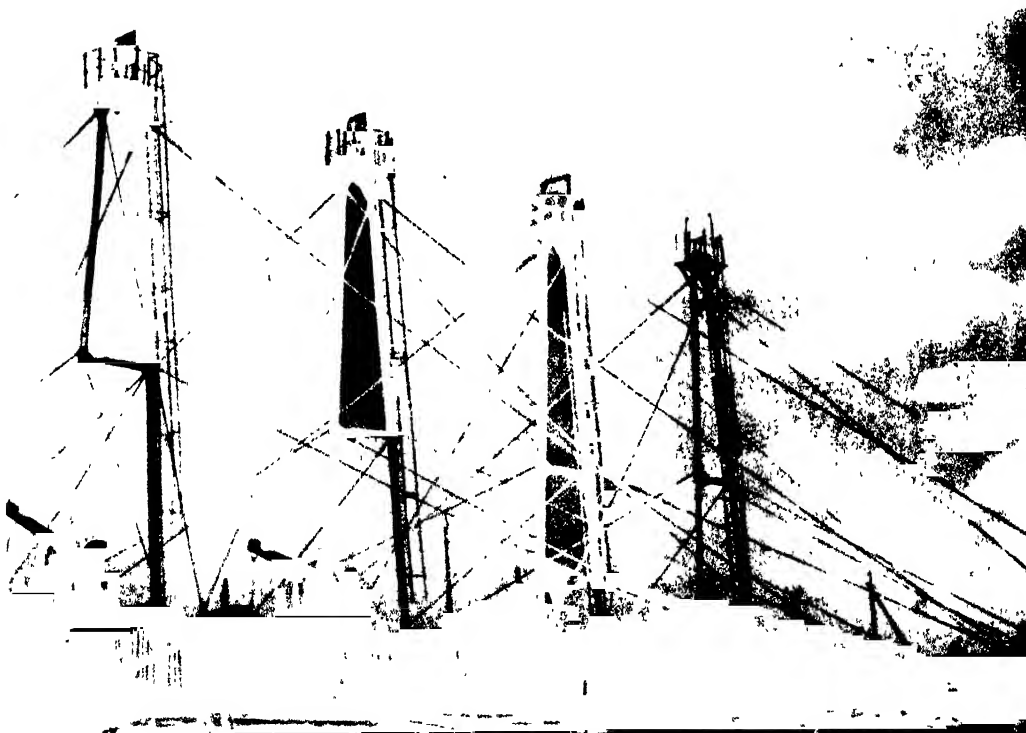
mittee of the C.P.S.U.(B.) and in 1926 Secretary of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.). In 1927 and 1928 he acted as Secretary of the Ural Regional Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.). In the beginning of 1929 he was elected Chairman of the Central Committee of the Metal Workers' Union and in 1930 First Secretary of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions, which post he held until March 15, 1944. At the Sixteenth Congress of the Party he was elected a member of the Organizing Bureau of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.).

N. M. Shvernik represents the Sverdlovsk Electoral District in the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. From January 1938 to March 1946 he was Chairman of the Soviet of Nationalities. In 1938 he was awarded the Order of Lenin to mark his fiftieth birthday and in recognition of his outstanding services to the working class. At a plenary meeting of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.) which took place on March 22, 1939, after the Eighteenth Congress of the C.P.S.U.(B.), he was elected an alternate member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.). On February 1, 1944, the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. elected him First Vice President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. On March 4, 1944, the Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R. elected him President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R.

On January 24, 1946, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. awarded N. M. Shvernik the Order of Lenin for successfully carrying out the government's assignments in supplying labour power for the industry, new construction and the transport system during the Great Patriotic War. On March 19, 1946 he was elected President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.



THE STAVROPOL OIL-FIELD IN ONE OF THE DISTRICTS OF "SECOND BAKU." 1946



A NUMBER OF ACTIVE WELLS OF
THE KRASNOKAMSK OIL TRUST,
MOLOTOV REGION

"SECOND BAKU"

THE OIL INDUSTRY of pre-revolutionary Russia was concentrated in the Caucasus. Of every 100 tons of fuel produced in the country 83 tons were produced in Baku, 13 tons in Grozny and only four tons in the rest of the country. No oil was extracted in the Volga area, the Urals, or the Far East.

And yet explorers and travellers reported outcrops of oil in various districts along the Volga. But the magnates of the Baku oil industry did everything to prevent oil-prospecting in new districts, trying to preserve their monopoly of the market.

When the Soviet government began to develop plans for the socialist industrialization of the country it faced the problem of increasing the oil resources and, especially, of establishing an oil industry in the East.

Numerous geological expeditions surveyed the Northern, Central and Southern Urals, Bashkiria and the Volga regions, with Academician Ivan Gubkin, the famous geologist, supervising the work. He argued that the areas along the Urals and beyond the Volga concealed rich oil deposits.

In April 1929, oil gushed out of a well drilled in the village of Verkhne-Chusovsk Gorodki (Molotov region). For the first time in history oil was extracted in the Urals. Geological surveying was then launched on an even greater scale, and after several years of persistent work oil began to gush out of the earth in various districts—the forest-covered banks of the Kama, the vast steppes of Chkalov region and Bashkiria, and the uncommonly beautiful Zhiguli Hills on the banks of the Volga.

Thus, a huge new oil district, later named the "Second Baku," sprung up. It extends over a vast territory between the Volga and the Urals, covering a total area of nearly a million square kilometres.

"Second Baku" is situated in a region of a powerful industry and a highly-developed mechanized agriculture. These economically flourishing districts now have their own oil supply base.

Large-scale development of the oil industry in the Urals and the Volga districts was begun in 1930 on the initiative of J. V. Stalin. Oil wells, oil refineries, highways and railways were built and new cities were laid out. Seven oil-fields were developed, two oil refineries were built, a 130-kilometre oil pipe-line was laid from Ufa to Ishimbayevo, and the towns of Severokamsk and Krasnokamsk (Molotov region) and Ishimbay (Bashkiria) were built during the period of 1930-38. In 1938 "Second Baku" yielded 1,300,000 tons of oil. The Grozny oil industry took 20 years to reach this level before the revolution.

The war did not disrupt construction work in the area of "Second Baku"; on the contrary, it intensified it.

The Germans seized Maikop, came close to Grozny and cut the railway line connecting Baku with the Volga districts. The defence industry of the eastern districts needed fuel, and the oilmen of "Second Baku" spared no efforts to produce it.

During the war the Urals increased the oil output by more than 50 per cent, Bashkiria doubled it, while Kuibyshev region increased its output three and a half times over. A gas

industry was set up on the territory of "Second Baku" during the hardest period of the war. In the autumn of 1942, when the battles for Stalingrad were being fought, Soviet geologists discovered a rich deposit of natural gas—the Yelshansk deposit in the Saratov region. Work on the construction of a 16-kilometre gas pipe-line from Yelshansk to Saratov was launched. Within six weeks Saratov received the first Yelshansk gas. A gas industry was simultaneously being built up in Chkalov region. The 180-kilometre Buguruslan-Kuibyshev gas pipe-line was completed in September 1943. Two large industrial centres on the Volga with their huge defence industries were thus adjusted to the cheapest and highest-grade fuel—natural gas—during the war.

The oilmen of "Second Baku" made another important discovery during the war. One of the test wells drilled in Bashkiria revealed exceptionally rich oil beds of Devonian age. On September 26, 1944 one of these beds yielded a fountain of oil with a daily output of 250 tons. Somewhat earlier a rich oil gusher had been produced by the same strata in the vicinity of Stavropol on the Volga. Oil had long been extracted from Devonian strata in Ukhta (the Komi A.S.S.R.). Devonian oil had also been found in Syzran, Tuimazy and Krasnokamsk—the three angles of an enormous triangle with an area of 300,000 square kilometres. The discovery of Devonian oil meant a new extensive development of the oil industry of the Urals and the Volga districts.

The Five-Year Plan for 1946-50 provides for an increase in the oil output throughout the eastern regions of the U.S.S.R. from 3,800,000 tons in 1940 to 12,600,000 tons in 1950. In 1950 the eastern districts will yield 3,400,000 more tons of oil than was produced in the whole of pre-revolutionary Russia. The part played by the eastern districts in Soviet oil industry as a whole will be much greater than before, reaching 36 per cent of the total output, with the oil industry of "Second Baku" developing particularly rapidly.

New oil areas along the Volga—in the Tatar A.S.S.R. and Saratov and Kuibyshev regions, will be put in operation. The Volga districts will increase their oil output 2.4 times during 1946-50.

The Ural districts will yield 3.2 times as much oil by the end of the five years as they did in 1940.

The oil output in Chkalov region will be increased to seven times and gas to six times that of 1945 by the end of the Five-Year Plan period. Large funds are being invested in the development of the oil-refining industry whose total output will be increased 4.5 times.

Developing the newly-discovered, richest Devonian deposits, Bashkiria will increase her oil output four times over, and considerably increase the output of refined products. A new 200-kilometre oil pipe-line will join the oil-field to the oil-refinery.

New oil wells, oil refineries, electric power plants and repair shops are growing up on the banks of the Kama, the Volga, in the forests of the North Urals and the steppes of Bashkiria. New highways, railways and oil and gas pipe-lines are being built. The Five-Year Plan for the development of the oil industry in the East of the Soviet Union is being successfully put into practice.

**DECREE OF THE PRESIDIUM OF THE SUPREME SOVIET
OF THE U.S.S.R.
ON THE ABOLITION OF CAPITAL PUNISHMENT**

THE HISTORIC VICTORY of the Soviet people over the enemy has demonstrated not only the enhanced might of the Soviet state but, and primarily so, the utter devotion of the entire population of the Soviet Union to their Soviet motherland and the Soviet government.

At the same time the international situation during the period that has elapsed since the capitulation of Germany and Japan has shown that peace may be considered assured for a long span of time in spite of attempts by aggressor elements to provoke war.

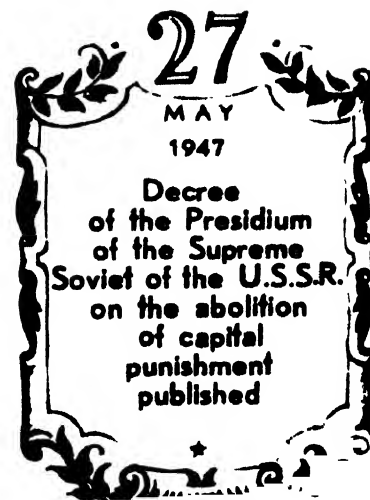
Taking these circumstances into consideration, and in compliance with the requests of the trade unions of workers and salaried employees, and other authoritative organizations expressing the opinion of the public at large, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. holds that capital punishment is no longer a necessity in peacetime.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. decrees:

1. To abolish in peacetime capital punishment prescribed for crimes under the laws in force in the U.S.S.R.
2. In peacetime, crimes punishable by death under the laws in force shall be punished by confinement in a correctional labour camp for a term of 25 years.
3. Death sentences not executed at the time of the issuance of the present Decree shall, by decision of a higher court, be commuted to penalties provided for in Article 2 of the present Decree.

N. SHVERNIK,
*President of the Presidium
of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.*

A. GORKIN,
*Secretary of the Presidium
of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.*



"SECOND BAKU"

THE OIL INDUSTRY of pre-revolutionary Russia was concentrated in the Caucasus. Of every 100 tons of fuel produced in the country 83 tons were produced in Baku, 13 tons in Grozny and only four tons in the rest of the country. No oil was extracted in the Volga area, the Urals, or the Far East.

And yet explorers and travellers reported outcrops of oil in various districts along the Volga. But the magnates of the Baku oil industry did everything to prevent oil-prospecting in new districts, trying to preserve their monopoly of the market.

When the Soviet government began to develop plans for the socialist industrialization of the country it faced the problem of increasing the oil resources and, especially, of establishing an oil industry in the East.

Numerous geological expeditions surveyed the Northern, Central and Southern Urals, Bashkiria and the Volga regions, with Academician Ivan Gubkin, the famous geologist, supervising the work. He argued that the areas along the Urals and beyond the Volga concealed rich oil deposits.

In April 1929, oil gushed out of a well drilled in the village of Verkhne-Chusovsk (Gorodki (Molotov region)). For the first time in history oil was extracted in the Urals. Geological surveying was then launched on an even greater scale, and after several years of persistent work oil began to gush out of the earth in various districts—the forest-covered banks of the Kama, the vast steppes of Chkalov region and Bashkiria, and the uncommonly beautiful Zhiguli Hills on the banks of the Volga.

Thus, a huge new oil district, later named the "Second Baku," sprung up. It extends over a vast territory between the Volga and the Urals, covering a total area of nearly a million square kilometres.

"Second Baku" is situated in a region of a powerful industry and a highly-developed mechanized agriculture. Those economically flourishing districts now have their own oil supply base.

Large-scale development of the oil industry in the Urals and the Volga districts was begun in 1930 on the initiative of J. V. Stalin. Oil wells, oil refineries, highways and railways were built and new cities were laid out. Seven oil-fields were developed, two oil refineries were built, a 130-kilometre oil pipe-line was laid from Ufa to Ishimbayevo, and the towns of Severokamsk and Krasnokamsk (Molotov region) and Ishimbay (Bashkiria) were built during the period of 1930-38. In 1938 "Second Baku" yielded 1,300,000 tons of oil. The Grozny oil industry took 20 years to reach this level before the revolution.

The war did not disrupt construction work in the area of "Second Baku"; on the contrary, it intensified it.

The Germans seized Maikop, came close to Grozny and cut the railway line connecting Baku with the Volga districts. The defence industry of the eastern districts needed fuel, and the oilmen of "Second Baku" spared no efforts to produce it.

During the war the Urals increased the oil output by more than 50 per cent, Bashkiria doubled it, while Kuibyshev region increased its output three and a half times over. A gas

industry was set up on the territory of "Second Baku" during the hardest period of the war. In the autumn of 1942, when the battles for Stalingrad were being fought, Soviet geologists discovered a rich deposit of natural gas—the Yelshansk deposit in the Saratov region. Work on the construction of a 16-kilometre gas pipe-line from Yelshansk to Saratov was launched. Within six weeks Saratov received the first Yelshansk gas. A gas industry was simultaneously being built up in Chkalov region. The 180-kilometre Buguruslan-Kuibyshev gas pipe-line was completed in September 1943. Two large industrial centres on the Volga with their huge defence industries were thus adjusted to the cheapest and highest-grade fuel—natural gas—during the war.

The oilmen of "Second Baku" made another important discovery during the war. One of the test wells drilled in Bashkiria revealed exceptionally rich oil beds of Devonian age. On September 26, 1944 one of these beds yielded a fountain of oil with a daily output of 250 tons. Somewhat earlier a rich oil gusher had been produced by the same strata in the vicinity of Stavropol on the Volga. Oil had long been extracted from Devonian strata in Ukhta (the Komi A.S.S.R.). Devonian oil had also been found in Syzran, Tuimazy and Krasnokamsk—the three angles of an enormous triangle with an area of 300,000 square kilometres. The discovery of Devonian oil meant a new extensive development of the oil industry of the Urals and the Volga districts.

The Five-Year Plan for 1946-50 provides for an increase in the oil output throughout the eastern regions of the U.S.S.R. from 3,800,000 tons in 1940 to 12,600,000 tons in 1950. In 1950 the eastern districts will yield 3,400,000 more tons of oil than was produced in the whole of pre-revolutionary Russia. The part played by the eastern districts in Soviet oil industry as a whole will be much greater than before, reaching 36 per cent of the total output, with the oil industry of "Second Baku" developing particularly rapidly.

New oil areas along the Volga—in the Tatar A.S.S.R. and Saratov and Kuibyshev regions, will be put in operation. The Volga districts will increase their oil output 2.4 times during 1946-50.

The Ural districts will yield 3.2 times as much oil by the end of the five years as they did in 1940.

The oil output in Chkalov region will be increased to seven times and gas to six times that of 1945 by the end of the Five-Year Plan period. Large funds are being invested in the development of the oil-refining industry whose total output will be increased 4.5 times.

Developing the newly-discovered, richest Devonian deposits, Bashkiria will increase her oil output four times over, and considerably increase the output of refined products. A new 200-kilometre oil pipe-line will join the oil-field to the oil-refinery.

New oil wells, oil refineries, electric power plants and repair shops are growing up on the banks of the Kama, the Volga, in the forests of the North Urals and the steppes of Bashkiria. New highways, railways and oil and gas pipe-lines are being built. The Five-Year Plan for the development of the oil industry in the East of the Soviet Union is being successfully put into practice.

**DECREE OF THE PRESIDIUM OF THE SUPREME SOVIET
OF THE U.S.S.R.
ON THE ABOLITION OF CAPITAL PUNISHMENT**

THE HISTORIC VICTORY of the Soviet people over the enemy has demonstrated not only the enhanced might of the Soviet state but, and primarily so, the utter devotion of the entire population of the Soviet Union to their Soviet motherland and the Soviet government.

At the same time the international situation during the period that has elapsed since the capitulation of Germany and Japan has shown that peace may be considered assured for a long span of time in spite of attempts by aggressor elements to provoke war.

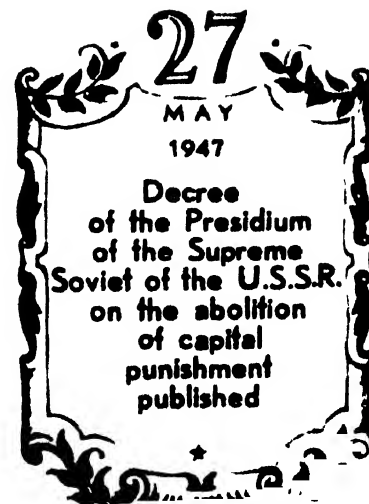
Taking these circumstances into consideration, and in compliance with the requests of the trade unions of workers and salaried employees, and other authoritative organizations expressing the opinion of the public at large, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. holds that capital punishment is no longer a necessity in peacetime.

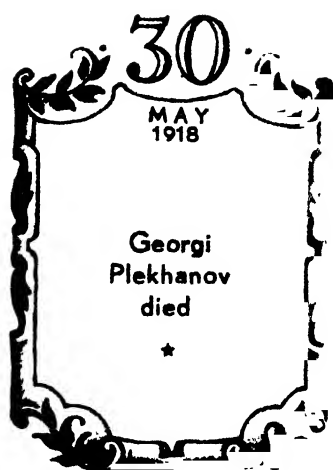
The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. *decrees:*

1. To abolish in peacetime capital punishment prescribed for crimes under the laws in force in the U.S.S.R.
2. In peacetime, crimes punishable by death under the laws in force shall be punished by confinement in a correctional labour camp for a term of 25 years.
3. Death sentences not executed at the time of the issuance of the present Decree shall, by decision of a higher court, be commuted to penalties provided for in Article 2 of the present Decree.

N. SHVERNIK,
*President of the Presidium
of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.*

A. GORKIN,
*Secretary of the Presidium
of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.*





"The consciousness of the great historic mission that fell to the lot of the Russian proletariat should fill with legitimate pride the hearts of all those who have the honour to belong to it."

G. Plekhanov

GEORGI PLEKHANOV

(1856-1918)

GEORGI VALENTINOVICH PLEKHANOV, one of Russia's great public figures, was an outstanding scholar and theoretician, richly endowed and widely educated. He was Russia's pioneer in Marxism.

Like many of the best people of Russia of his days, Plekhanov began his public activity with work in revolutionary circles, with "going to the people." In 1880 he emigrated to escape persecution by the tsarist police, and spent thirty-seven years abroad. There he gained knowledge of the international labour movement and gave himself to the study of the works of Karl Marx and Frederick Engels.

He translated the *Communist Manifesto* into Russian. The translation was published in 1882 with Plekhanov's introduction.

Progressive social ideas in Russia, the legacy of the great Russian revolutionary democrats—Alexander Herzen, Vissarion Belinsky, Nikolai Dobrolyubov and, particularly, Nikolai Chernyshevsky—served as the stimulus which turned Plekhanov toward revolutionary Marxism.

Plekhanov called Marx and Chernyshevsky his teachers. It was they who mapped out his path in life.

Plekhanov raised social thought in Russia to a new and higher plane: he was the first to apply Marxism to an analysis of Russian history and of Russian life. The "Emancipation of Labour" group he organized in Geneva in 1883 was the first Russian Marxist group. Its chief aim was the dissemination of Marxism in Russia and the treatment of cardinal problems of Russian social life from the viewpoint of scientific socialism. Members of the group translated a number of the works of Marx and Engels into Russian and wrote works which ideologically paved the way for the Marxist movement in Russia. The activity of the "Emancipation of Labour" group constituted the first step toward the building up of a labour movement. The next, and the decisive, steps were the organization by Vladimir Ilyich Lenin of the "League of Struggle for the Emancipation of the Working Class" and the foundation by him of the newspaper *Iskra*, which prepared the ground for the organization of the Bolshevik Party.

Plekhanov's "Emancipation of Labour" group dealt the first blow at the Narodniks, the enemies of Marxism in those days. The reactionary theories and erroneous political practices of the Narodniks hampered the development of the struggle of the working class for its liberation.

Socialism and the Political Struggle, Our Differences, On the

Development of the Monistic View of History, and On the Role of the Individual in History, Plekhanov's best works, were written in the 'eighties and 'nineties. They had a tremendous influence on the development of Marxism in Russia.

In *Socialism and the Political Struggle* and *Our Differences* Plekhanov refuted the Narodnik theory that capitalism was something "accidental" in Russia, that it would not develop there. He proved that Russia had already entered the path of capitalist development and that the vanguard force of the revolutionary movement in Russia would be not the peasantry, as the Narodniks asserted, but the working class. Plekhanov argued that the Russian Marxists could, by conscious effort, accelerate the process of historical development.

In his book *On the Development of the Monistic View of History*, Plekhanov gave a brilliant exposition of the philosophical principles of materialism. Lenin said that this book served to "rear a whole generation of Russian Marxists."

Plekhanov proved in *On the Role of the Individual in History* that outstanding individuals could play an important part in the life of society only if they correctly understood how society develops and how it can be changed for the better. Not individuals, but classes, determine the course of history. When the Narodniks reproached Plekhanov for ignoring the intelligentsia, he answered them scornfully in the name of the Russian Marxists: "We offer it the role of Prometheus. And when its spirits fall, we encourage it by pointing to the great, invincible army of the people standing behind it."

Plekhanov devoted much attention to literature and art. He demonstrated that the laws of historical development established by the materialist conception of history apply also to art.

Plekhanov committed a number of major political errors (during the revolution of 1905-07, World War I, and during the October Socialist Revolution) which led him to break with the revolutionary Social-Democrats—the Bolsheviks—on fundamental questions of program and tactics and brought him over to the camp of the opportunists. Lenin fought Plekhanov on this account, yet he recognized the great services Plekhanov had rendered in the past.

The works of Plekhanov expounding Marxism have retained their significance to this day.

Joseph Stalin has ranked Plekhanov among the great sons of the Russian people.

Plekhanov's remains lie in the Volkov Cemetery in Leningrad, beside the grave of Belinsky.



J U N E

- JUNE 3, 1946** *Mikhail Ivanovich Kalinin, one of the outstanding leaders of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet state, died.*
- JUNE 5, 1945** *The Declaration on the Defeat of Germany and on Assuming Supreme Power by the Governments of the Four Allied Powers—U.S.S.R., Great Britain, U.S.A., and the French Republic, signed.*
- JUNE 6, 1945** *The Medal "For Valorous Labour during the Great Patriotic War 1941-1945," instituted.*
- JUNE 7, 1935** *Ivan Michurin, outstanding Soviet scientist and fruit-growing specialist, died.*
- JUNE 9, 1947** *275th anniversary of the birth of Peter I, the great reformer of the Russian state.*
- JUNE 9, 1848** *Vissarion Belinsky, the great Russian revolutionary and democrat, philosopher, critic and publicist, died.*
- JUNE 15, 1945** *Publication of the Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. conferring the Order of Lenin on the Young Communist League for outstanding services rendered to the country during the Great Patriotic War.*
- JUNE 17, 1917** *Speech by V. I. Lenin at the First All-Russian Congress of Soviets.*
- JUNE 18, 1936** *Maxim Gorky died.*
- JUNE 19, 1943** *Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. conferring the title of Hero of the Soviet Union on Alexander Matrosov.*
- JUNE 22, 1941** *Hitlerite Germany perfidiously attacked the Soviet Union. The Great Patriotic War of the Soviet people against the German fascist invaders began.*
- JUNE 26, 1945** *The Charter of the United Nations Organization adopted at the San Francisco Conference.*
- JUNE 27, 1945** *Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. conferring on J. V. Stalin, Supreme Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the U.S.S.R., the highest military title of Generalissimo of the Soviet Union.*
- JUNE 29, 1944** *Units of the Soviet Army liberated Petrozavodsk, the capital of the Karelo-Finnish S.S.R., from the German invaders.*



MIKHAIL KALININ

"THE SOVIET FEDERATIVE STATE SYSTEM HAS BESTOWED BENEFITS WITHOUT NUMBER UPON ALL THE PEOPLES OF THE U.S.S.R. IT NOT ONLY ENSURED LEGAL AND POLITICAL EQUALITY BUT ALSO THE MATERIAL BASIS FOR THE REALIZATION OF ACTUAL EQUALITY AMONG THE PEOPLES.

"MANY TRIBES AND PEOPLES ACQUIRED NATIONAL STATEHOOD AND WERE FORMED INTO NATIONS ONLY UNDER SOVIET RULE."

M. Kalinin

MIKHAIL KALININ

(1875-1946)

MIKHAIL IVANOVICH KALININ was one of the founders and outstanding leaders of the Communist Party and of the Soviet state, and a loyal disciple and colleague of Lenin and Stalin.

He was born in a peasant family in 1875, in the Tver gubernia (now the Kalinin region). He attended the village school for four years and in 1889 went to Petrograd, where, still a youth, he devoted himself to the revolutionary struggle. While employed as a metal turner at the Sary Arsenal and Putilov Plants he took an active part in the work of the underground Marxist circles. In 1896 he joined the League of Struggle for the Emancipation of the Working Class which Lenin had formed.

In 1898 he joined the Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party. In July 1899 he was arrested and after spending ten months in prison he was deported from St. Petersburg. In 1900 he conducted revolutionary activities in Tiflis and in 1901 and 1902 in Revel, repeatedly undergoing arrest. In 1905 he returned to St. Petersburg and took part in the first Russian revolution. He was a delegate at the Fourth Congress of the Party.

From 1906 to 1908 he was a member of the St. Petersburg Committee of the Metal Workers' Union, and from 1908 to 1910 conducted underground Bolshevik activities in Moscow. In 1910 he was arrested and deported to his native village in Tver.

From 1911 to 1917 Kalinin conducted Party work in St. Petersburg. In 1912 the Prague Conference elected him an alternate member of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party and a member of the Russian Bureau of the Central Committee. He assisted Comrades Stalin and Molotov in editing the *Pravda*. In 1916 he was arrested—for the fourteenth time—and sentenced to exile in Siberia.

During the revolution in February 1917 he worked among the proletariat in Petrograd and subsequently took part in the Great October Socialist Revolution.

After the October Revolution, Kalinin became the Chairman of the Petrograd City Duma. In March 1919, after the death of Sverdlov, he, on Lenin's proposal, was elected Chairman of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee, and in the same year he was elected a member of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party.

For his services at the front and in strengthening the defences of the country during the Civil War he was twice awarded the Order of the Red Banner.

In 1922 he was elected Chairman of the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. and in January 1938 President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., which post he held until March 1946, shortly before his death.

In 1926 he was elected a member of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.).

In November 1935 he was awarded the Order of Lenin for outstanding services in creating and strengthening the first socialist workers' and peasants' state in the world. By a Decree issued by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. on March 29, 1944, he was awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labour, the Order of Lenin and the Gold Hammer and Sickle Medal for his outstanding services in building and strengthening the Soviet state, on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of his occupation of the post of head of the supreme organ of the Soviet government. On the occasion of his seventieth birthday, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. in its Decree of November 19, 1945 awarded him the Order of Lenin.

Mikhail Kalinin died on June 3, 1946, after a severe and protracted illness.

The memory of Mikhail Ivanovich Kalinin—ardent patriot, indomitable fighter for Communism, and wise and warm-hearted leader—will live forever in the hearts of all Soviet people.





6

JUNE
1945

Medal
"For Valorous
Labour
During the
Great Patriotic
War of
1941-1945"
Instituted



"THERE IS EVERY GROUND FOR SAYING THAT THE SELF-SACRIFICING EFFORTS OF OUR SOVIET PEOPLE IN THE REAR WILL GO DOWN IN HISTORY PARALLEL WITH THE HEROIC STRUGGLE OUR RED ARMY IS WAGING AS AN UNPRECEDENTED FEAT OF HEROISM PERFORMED BY A PEOPLE IN DEFENDING THEIR COUNTRY."

STALIN

**DECREE OF THE PRESIDIUM OF THE
SUPREME SOVIET OF THE U.S.S.R.
INSTITUTING THE MEDAL
"FOR VALOROUS LABOUR IN THE
GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR 1941-1945"**

1. THE MEDAL "FOR VALOROUS LABOUR IN THE GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR 1941-1945" IN HONOUR OF THE VICTORY OVER GERMANY IS HEREBY INSTITUTED.

2. THE MEDAL "FOR VALOROUS LABOUR IN THE GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR 1941-1945" IS TO BE AWARDED TO:

a) WORKERS, ENGINEERS AND TECHNICAL PERSONNEL, AND CLERKS IN INDUSTRY AND TRANSPORT,

b) COLLECTIVE FARMERS AND SPECIALISTS IN AGRICULTURE,

c) WORKERS IN SCIENCE, ENGINEERING, ART AND LITERATURE,

d) WORKERS IN GOVERNMENT BODIES, IN PARTY, TRADE UNION AND OTHER PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS,

WHO BY THEIR VALOROUS AND SELFLESS LABOUR MADE POSSIBLE THE VICTORY OF THE SOVIET UNION OVER GERMANY IN THE GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR.

3. THE RULES GOVERNING THE MEDAL "FOR VALOROUS LABOUR IN THE GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR 1941-1945" ARE HEREBY CONFIRMED.

4. THE DESCRIPTION OF THE MEDAL "FOR VALOROUS LABOUR IN THE GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR 1941-1945" IS HEREBY CONFIRMED.

M. KALININ

**President of the Presidium
of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.**

A. GORKIN

**Secretary of the Presidium
of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.**

Moscow, Kremlin, June 6, 1945



"We cannot wait for nature to dispense her boons; we must take them from her—that is our task."

I. Michurin

IVAN MICHURIN

(1855-1935)

IVAN VLADIMIROVICH MICHURIN, the great Russian scientist and selectionist, was born on October 27, 1855, in the family of a small estate owner, in the village of Dolgoye, Ryazan gubernia.

He attended a *gymnasium* in Ryazan, but owing to the bankruptcy of his family was unable to complete his education and went to work early in life; he worked as a clerk, assistant station master, cashier, electrician and even operated a watch-repair shop. Michurin's greatest interest lay in gardening. In 1875 he rented land for an experimental garden and systematically worked on the selection of fruit plants. In 1888 Michurin founded the first Russian selection nursery near the town of Kozlov (now Michurinsk) in Central Russia where he grew new varieties of apples, pears and other fruits.

Michurin's life story is that of an indefatigable toiler. Working for nearly forty years under the most difficult conditions, suffering from constant money troubles with no support from the government of tsarist Russia, he stubbornly and patiently pursued his avowed aim.

He said: "We cannot wait for nature to dispense her boons; we must take them from her—that is our task."

With the establishment of Soviet power Michurin's work acquired a wide scope. The maintenance of his nursery was taken over by the state and Michurin was granted large funds to carry on his scientific work. On Lenin's personal instructions Kalinin twice visited Michurin's gardens, which extended over a wide territory.

The Soviet government highly appraised Michurin's work; he was decorated with the Order of Lenin and the Order of the Red Banner of Labour. His book, *Results of Fifty Years' Work*, was published in a splendid edition. On the 60th anniversary of his activity he received greetings from Stalin. He was awarded the title of Merited Worker of Science and the degree of Doctor of Biology. He was an honorary member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. and of the Czechoslovak Agrarian Academy, as well as a member of the American Scientific Society "Breeders."

The great Darwinist-selectionist produced nearly 350 new highly valuable varieties of fruit and berry plants which made it possible to move fruit-growing far up to the north and northeast of the U.S.S.R.

As a true scientist and experimenter Michurin possessed progressive revolutionary ideas. He devoted all his indefat-

igable energy to the great idea—to enrich the land, to cover it with blossoming gardens. He lived for the people, loved the people with the fervent soul of a Russian, and gave the people the fruits of his labours and the inspired mind of a scientist.

In 1934 Michurin wrote to Stalin: "The dream of my whole life has come true: the new valuable varieties of fruit plants produced by me have moved from experimental plots not to individual rich kulaks, but to large state and collective-farm orchards, replacing the poor, low-yield, old varieties."

With the unusual perspicacity of an experimenter Michurin applied Darwin's teachings to his scientific work. By inter-species and vegetative hybridization he synthesized the useful characteristics of various plants, thus developing entirely new varieties with greatly increased yields.

Michurin's theoretical methods represent a most valuable contribution to science, a new link in the development of agro-biology. They open inexhaustible possibilities for developing new farm plants.

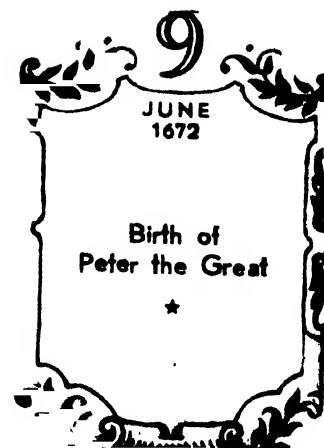
Continuing Michurin's work, the Central Genetics Laboratory, named after him, has made great progress. An enormous collection of hybrids has been planted on its experimental plots. The collection contains 150,000 hybrid-seedlings. Variety-testing and assembling stations have been organized which now work with more than 2,000 varieties of Soviet and foreign-selected fruit trees and bushes.

In ten years (1935-45) the Central Genetics Laboratory grew and sent to various regions of the Soviet Union two million apple tree saplings, one and a half million grafts from fruit trees and nearly a million grape-vine cuttings.

The Michurin plantations have endured the severe winters of recent years, which confirms the practical importance of Michurin's achievements.

The U.S.S.R. is the richest country in the world in plant resources. The existing types serve as the basic material for the production of new varieties of plants to enrich Soviet farms.

Thousands of Michurin's followers are continuing the work of their teacher, producing improved local varieties of fruit trees and bushes. This work is being done at experimental stations, in collective-farm laboratories, in the experimenters' own gardens. Drought-resisting and frost-resisting varieties of melon and fruit plants are being developed in far-off Siberia and in Altai, in the Ukraine and in the Central Asiatic Soviet Republics.



**PETER
THE GREAT**

Sculpture by M. Antokolsky

PETER THE GREAT

THE REIGN OF PETER THE GREAT (1682-1725) is one of the most important periods in Russian history. The most sweeping state and army reforms and great advances in the development of Russian culture are connected with his time and personality.

In the 17th century, Russia, with her extensive possessions on the Asiatic Continent (Siberia), was the biggest European state. Due to unfavourable historical conditions Russia had been cut off from the seas in the West. Although Russia was a state with a central government,—in certain fields she lagged behind the leading West European countries; her state system contained many survivals of the past. The Russian army, which, according to contemporaries, displayed staunchness and bravery in battle, was still not a regular army and was behind the armies of the West European states both in organization and armaments.

The son of Tsar Alexei Mikhailovich, Peter was born in Moscow on June 9, 1672. He was only three years of age when his father died; at ten he was proclaimed tsar, and so was his brother, Ivan; but because both were under age, Peter's sister, Sophie, became regent. During Sophie's regency (1682-89) Peter was kept from government affairs and spent most of his time in villages near Moscow.

On coming of age, Peter overthrew the Regent Sophie, and, after the death of his brother Ivan, became tsar both in name and in deed. Peter had a strong character and an indomitable will; he was a far-sighted statesman, a brilliant reformer, diplomat and military leader. Contrary to his predecessors, the haughty and inaccessible tsars, Peter took a personal interest in everything. He was simple in address, loved work and learned some fifteen different trades, including those of blacksmith, carpenter and cabinetmaker. Peter visited almost every country in Europe, established wide connections with foreigners and readily offered them jobs when there was a shortage of experienced Russians. However, he shunned slavish imitation and took from foreigners only that which could be utilized under Russian conditions.

Peter had to wage many wars as a result of the historical conditions that arose in his time. The war with Turkey and especially the war with Sweden convinced him of the utter necessity of reorganizing the entire state system, by taking advantage of the best experience of the European states and of native Russian experience. Peter realized that Russia could not become a strong state without her own industry, and began to build up an industry; this took place simultaneously with a reorganization of all government institutions and the army, and the building of a fleet. He won some brilliant victories in the difficult wars that he fought.

Peter had to face many difficulties in building up an industry. Russia at the beginning of the 18th century had a backward feudal economy. The peasants were bound to the estates and were burdened by heavy levies and assessments imposed upon them by the feudal lords. Free labourers were practically not available. Nevertheless, by encouraging private enterprise in every way, Peter achieved surprising successes in the development of industry. When Peter ascended the throne there were only a few manufactories in Russia, but towards the last years of his life, apart from a great number of small shops, Russia had about 80 fairly large factories.

The metal-working and ship-building industries were especially important for conducting wars, and Peter succeeded in building up a native ship-building industry and an armaments industry that produced artillery, muskets and other arms. Thanks to the rapid development of the native industry, Russia was able to defeat such a strong state as was Sweden at the beginning of the 18th century.

Peter's state reforms were of great progressive importance. He realized that to carry out the tasks he set himself in domestic and foreign policy, firm, strong and flexible rule was needed, based on a strictly centralized system of administration and upon obedient and efficient officials. The absolute monarchy that existed in the West served as a model for Peter.

Peter destroyed the old institutions mercilessly and created new ones in their place. Instead of the old *prikazi*, he created collegiums whose functions were strictly defined, and these became the central organs of government. He replaced the Boyar Duma by a State Senate, and charged it with supervising the activities of the collegiums. To facilitate easy administration, the country was divided up into gubernias, and these were later sub-divided into smaller units. The towns had local self-government.

As a result of Peter's reforms, the administrative system became harmonious and uniform. The activity of all the institutions were regulated by common laws, and there was strict subordination of provincial to central institutions.

Peter introduced a "Table of Ranks," by which all military and civil offices were divided into 14 "ranks," or posts. Everyone, regardless of origin or station in society, had to start his service from the lowest, fourteenth rank. Only knowledge and experience gave the right to promotion.

Peter tried to satisfy the principal interests of the ruling class—the nobility, and meet the chief demands of the class of merchants which had just begun to spring up; he introduced strict compulsory service for the nobility, giving them the choice of serving in the army, in the navy, or in government institutions. He forced the sons of the nobility who were under age to study, sent them abroad for this purpose and often personally examined them.

Relying upon the political and military might of Russia, Peter solved a problem in the field of foreign policy that was of great historical importance—he obtained for Russia an outlet to the Baltic Sea. In the long drawn-out war with Sweden (1700-21) the Russian army grew in strength and military experience and inflicted a decisive defeat upon the Swedish army at Poltava (1709); and the Russian fleet, defeating the Swedish fleet near Hangö Head (1714) and Grengam Island (1720), gained domination of the Baltic. By the Nystadt Peace in 1721, Russia received the entire coast of the Baltic Sea from Vyborg to Riga.

In the same year Peter assumed the title of Emperor of all Russia, and the State of Muscovy became known as the Russian Empire.

Peter's progressive activity was of paramount importance to Russia. It eliminated the danger of Russia's being reduced to the level of a second-rate power and opened up great possibilities for her further economical and cultural development. Contemporaries and later generations call Peter a great man—Peter the Great.



"We envy our grandchildren and great-grandchildren who are destined to see Russia in 1940 leading the cultural world, making the laws for science and art and accepting a reverent tribute from all enlightened mankind."

VISSARION BELINSKY

(1811-1848)

THE GREAT RUSSIAN critic, philosopher, and publicist Vissarion Grigoryevich Belinsky was born in Sveaborg in the family of a naval physician. He spent his childhood in the provincial town of Chembar, in the Penza gubernia. While he was still at school, Belinsky displayed a remarkable talent for writing and a passionate interest in literature.

He entered Moscow University in 1829, but was expelled after his third year for his tragedy *Dmitri Kalinin*, a play in which he sharply criticized serfdom in autocratic Russia.

After his expulsion from the university the youth experienced difficult years, years of poverty; he gave private lessons, did minor literary work and occasional translations.

Belinsky's mental development was greatly influenced by his work in the circle headed by Nikolai Stankevich which brought together the best minds among Moscow students of the 'thirties. The members of this circle were deeply interested in all philosophical and aesthetic problems.

In 1834 Belinsky found employment on the staff of the magazine *Telescope*. His first big article, *Literary Reveries*, which opened a new era in the history of Russian literary criticism, appeared in this magazine.

In this essay Belinsky traced the historical development of Russian literature from the time of Peter the Great to the early 19th century, discussed the works of contemporary authors and outlined the prospects for the further development of Russian literature. He emphasized that literature should reflect in the first place the national character of the people.

The *Telescope* was suppressed in 1836. The ensuing activities of the critic were connected chiefly with the best magazines of that period, *Otechestvenniye Zapiski* (*Homeland Notes*) (1839-46) and *Sovremennik* (*The Contemporary*) (1846-48). The articles, book reviews and annual reviews of current Russian literature that appeared in the columns of these magazines made Belinsky famous.

Vissarion Belinsky was the first and best interpreter of the outstanding Russian authors of the 18th and 19th centuries. This great revolutionary democrat championed the idea of art that both reflects and serves life, of social art that answers the pressing demands of the century. He regarded literature as one of the most powerful weapons in the promotion of reforms. He considered that an artist should first and foremost serve his people and his country and the cause of liberation from autocracy and serfdom. Waging a merciless struggle against the advocates of the theory of art for art's sake, against Epicurean verse and false romanticism which lead the readers away from the burning issues of the day, Belinsky advanced the principle of national character in literature and realism in art, of full-blooded poetry instilled with a profound content that could be understood by the people and was close to them. He correctly predicted the course of development of Russian literature, contemporary to him, which, thanks to its unswerving fidelity to realistic traditions, became one of the greatest of the world's literatures.

Every great author was judged by Belinsky by the way his works gave expression to the life of the people and of mankind in the given epoch. Real art, in his opinion, must be revolutionary and national in character. This is why Belinsky, according to Ivan Turgenev, became the "central figure" of the 19th-century literary movement.

Belinsky explained to the public the significance of Mikhail Lomonosov, the great Russian scholar who sprang from the people, and showed by his example what giants of thought the Russian people were capable of producing.

In the famous series of articles on Alexander Pushkin, he revealed the genuine national and progressive character of Pushkin's variegated poetry and called him the "perfect interpreter of his time."

Belinsky was the first to give a just and profound appraisal of Nikolai Gogol's writings and recognized his *Dead Souls* as a great work, saying that this "creation is purely Russian, national, a stupendous work of art both in conception and execution, by the characters of the heroes and details of the Russian mode of life, and at the same time it is profound in ideas, social, public-minded, and historical. . . "

The great critic warmly welcomed the appearance in the literary arena of Ivan Turgenev, Dmitri Grigorovich and Ivan Goncharov; he gave direction to the talent of Nikolai Nekrasov and predicted a great future for Fyodor Dostoyevsky on reading the latter's first novel *Poor People*.

Vissarion Belinsky's name is also prominent in the history of Russian social thought. Belinsky arrived at the materialistic world outlook after a complicated road traversed through philosophical and aesthetic theories. The path he followed in his searchings reflected the process of the development of Russian revolutionary-democratic thought in the struggle against autocracy and serfdom. He was a passionate fighter for the well-being of the people. His famous letter to Gogol on the latter's *Correspondence with Friends* written in 1847, in the words of Lenin "summed up Belinsky's literary activities, and was one of the best writings that appeared in the uncensored democratic press." It reflected the "mood of the peasant serfs against serfdom."

In this letter Belinsky sharply criticized the reactionary theories advocating such principles of national character in literature as affirmed national backwardness, submissiveness, and similar "virtues" of serfdom. He understood the national character in literature to mean a mercilessly true portrayal of life and the exposure of the oppressors of the people. This letter, which did not appear in full in the press until 1905, played an important role in the history of the Russian liberation movement.

Lenin considered Belinsky the "forerunner of Russian social-democracy," together with Alexander Herzen and Nikolai Chernyshevsky. Writing about Belinsky, the latter said: "Love of country and thoughts for her well-being inspired every word of his and it is this burning passion that explains the rigid, untiring energy that he devoted to his activities and the great influence he had on the public and literature."

Vissarion Belinsky assimilated the achievements of the leading European thinkers and utilized the rich cultural inheritance of the Russian people to develop social and philosophical thought. He earnestly believed in the glorious future of his people. "We are called upon to say a word to the world," he prophesied. "We envy our grandchildren and great-grandchildren who are destined to see Russia in 1940 leading the cultural world, making the laws for science and art and accepting a reverent tribute of respect from all enlightened mankind."



RONISLAV URBANOVICHUS

Hero of the Soviet Union, deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Lithuanian S.S.R. During the Patriotic War he headed a partisan detachment and participated in the liberation of Lithuania and Byelorussia from the German invaders



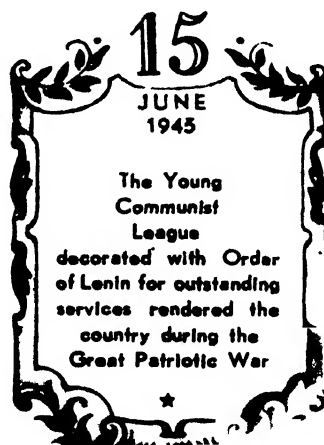
NIKOLAI LUKICHEV

Outstanding Donbas coal cutter



GEORGI TIMUSHEV

Hero of the Soviet Union, third-year student of the Department of Physics and Mathematics of the Lomonosov State University in Moscow. In the reading room of the Lenin Library, Moscow



FAROGAT ARTYKOVA

Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Uzbek S.S.R., brigade leader of the Karl Marx collective farm, Samarkand region. In 1946 she harvested 112 tons of cotton per hectare



NINA ULIANENKO

Hero of the Soviet Union, deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R. At present she attends the Kursk Regional Party School



MAMADZHAN KULIEVA

Merited Artist of the Turkmen S.S.R., deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the Turkmen S.S.R.

SOVIET YOUTH

WHEN J. B. PRIESTLEY visited the Soviet Union in 1945 he said that he was delighted with the Soviet youth, and that in his opinion the success achieved in the education of the young generation was the greatest accomplishment of Soviet Russia in her cultural advancement. The Soviet youth knows that they have every opportunity to develop their talents and be of service to society. Nowhere, Priestley said, had he seen such hope and trust in the future. The Soviet country is the best country in the world. It is particularly a good place for the youth to live in.

The opinion of the prominent English author is shared by representatives of all leading, progressive circles throughout the world. The 29 youth delegations from 17 countries, including the U.S.A., England, France, Italy, Norway, Yugoslavia, Iran, Czechoslovakia, Finland and Rumania who visited the U.S.S.R. between 1945-47 were able to convince themselves with their own eyes that what Mr. Priestley had said was true.

The Great October Socialist Revolution freed the working people of Russia from the oppression of the tsarist landlords and capitalists. It solved all the problems of work and study for the younger generations, opened for every young person a wide road in life leading to the heights of science and culture. The rising generation in the Soviet Union has full political and economic rights, and is assured of conditions necessary for general physical and spiritual development.

Throughout the history of the Soviet state, the Soviet youth and its vanguard, the Lenin Young Communist League, fostered by Lenin and Stalin, have been active builders of their own lives. The youth, shoulder to shoulder with their older comrades, fought selflessly for the victory of the Socialist Revolution in the historic days of October 1917. During the Civil War, when the young Soviet Republic was threatened by a mortal danger, tens of thousands of young men and women went to the front to defend their country, her honour and her freedom.

The Young Communist League was decorated with the Order of the Red Banner for service then rendered in the armed struggle with the enemies of the republic.

In the Soviet country it is difficult to find a branch of economy or culture in which the youth is not taking the most active part. The Soviet youth and its vanguard, the Young Communist League, came forward as active helpers of the Party of Lenin and Stalin in the struggle for the industrialization of the country and the collectivization of agriculture, for the successful fulfilment of the Stalin Five-Year Plans, for the mastery of modern technical science.

Hundreds of thousands of young people worked heroically to build the first industrial giants. Thousands of boys and girls helped construct the Stalingrad Tractor Plant. Sixty-six thousand youths were engaged in construction work in Siberia and the Urals, 36,000 worked in the mines of the Donbas, 10,000 Young Communist Leaguers helped to build the Moscow subway. On the banks of the distant Amur thousands of young people set up the town of youth, Komsomolsk.

The youth did a fine job in the countryside. With the active participation of the youth, 5,000 collective farms were organized as early as Spring 1929.

Youth was the pioneer in the historical Stakhanovite movement; in the Donbas, the young miner Alexei Stakhanov set up his famous record for mining coal; on the railways it was the engine driver and member of the Young Communist League Peter Krivonos; in the textile industry, the weavers—members of the Young Communist League Evdokia and Maria Vinogradova; in agriculture, the best tractor drivers and harvester combine operators were the Young Communist League Members—Praskovia Angelina, now Hero of Socialist Labour, Konstantin Borin, Praskovia Kovardak and others.

The Soviet government placed a high estimation on the work of the youth. In 1931 the Young Communist League was decorated with the Order of the Red Banner of Labour for heroic participation in socialist construction and for exemplary work.

The Soviet Constitution has guaranteed the youth the right to work, to rest, and to education. In 1940-41 there were more

than 34,000,000 pupils in the elementary and secondary schools, 1,000,000 students in technical institutes, and 560,000 students in the 782 institutions of higher learning. The extensive network of health resorts, hospitals and free medical centres assures the health of the younger generation. With each year the youth of the Soviet Union is attaining a higher level of culture.

Young Soviet sportsmen and athletes have captured a number of world records, have been victorious at international music competitions, in international chess tournaments and matches.

During the Patriotic War against the German fascist invaders the Soviet youth showed its supreme devotion to its country and its readiness to defend every inch of native soil to the last drop of blood. On all fronts the young soldiers of the Soviet Army earned undying glory. Of the 10,943 Heroes of the Soviet Union, 7,000 are young people. There are 66 women Heroes of the Soviet Union and 64 of them are members of the Young Communist League. Of the 101 twice Heroes of the Soviet Union, 60 are youths. The whole world knows the names of the young Soviet heroes who sacrificed their lives in the name of common victory. Among them are Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya, Alexander Matrosov, Lisa Chaikina, and the courageous youth of Krasnodon, whose names will live through the centuries. The Young Communist League is proud of its members Alexander Pokryshkin and Ivan Kozhedub, who are thrice Heroes of the Soviet Union.

The youth worked heroically in the rear as well. Joseph Stalin gave a high appraisal of the achievements of the youth on the home and battle fronts during the Great Patriotic War. The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. has decorated the Young Communist League with the country's highest award, the Order of Lenin.

The Soviet youth is taking the most active part in the gigantic work of carrying out the post-war Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy of the U.S.S.R. Millions of youths and girls are taking part in the All-Union socialist competition and have undertaken to complete the production plan for 1947 by the 30th anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

Youth organizations are taking part in the building of rural power stations, in the work of restoring Stalingrad and other large Russian cities that were destroyed by the Germans. More than 4,200 young workers are helping to restore the Dnieper Hydroelectric Power Station. Among the railway workers of the country alone there are 36 young people decorated with the high title of Hero of Socialist Labour. In agriculture this title was conferred upon 12 youths and girls among whom are the Young Communist League members Maria Fastova, Pasha Gudzenko, Mariam Martirosyan and others.

Many young people have become prominent in the sciences, arts and letters. In 1946-47 the number of students in institutions of higher learning was 632,000, or 72,000 more than in 1940. More than 230 young people have won the Stalin Prize.

The Soviet youth has equal status with the older generation. The Young Communist League takes part in all political campaigns of the country at the head of the youth, as an independent political organization. In accordance with the Constitution of the U.S.S.R., every youth and girl, upon reaching 18 years of age, has the right to vote. Two hundred and ninety-three people below the age of 35 were elected deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. in 1946.

The Soviet youth has won the friendship of millions of young people throughout the world. The Soviet Youth Anti-Fascist Committee maintains contact with more than 150 youth organizations in nearly 40 countries. The All-Union Lenin Young Communist League is a member of the World Federation of Democratic Youth, which was founded at the World Conference in London, in 1945.

The Soviet youth, side by side with the progressive youth of all countries, is fighting to strengthen peace and friendship among the peoples of the world, against the incendiaries of a new war and their supporters—the bitterest enemies of all mankind.



NATASHA KOVSHOVA (left) and MARIA POLIVANOVA

IMMORTAL NAMES

Throughout the years of the Great Patriotic War Soviet youth has fought heroically for the honour and independence of their country. Many young men and women have earned immortal glory by their fearless deeds.

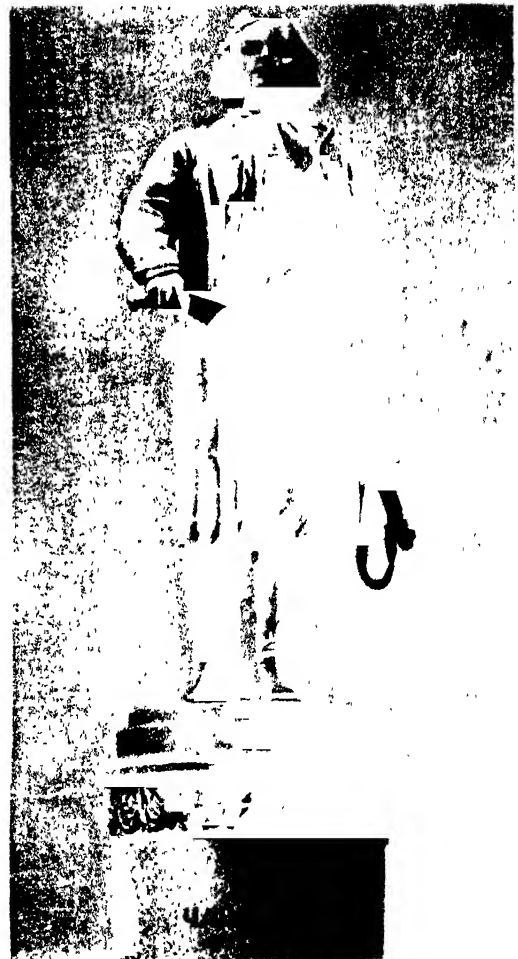
Soviet people will always remember them.



Sculpture by M. Manizer
ZOYA KOSMODEMYANSKAYA



TIMUR FRUNZE



Sculpture by N. Tomskey (Model of monument)

LISA CHAIKINA

ZOYA KOSMODEMYANSKAYA (1923-1941)

THE NAME OF ZOYA KOSMODEMYANSKAYA, a Moscow Young Communist League member, is known far beyond the borders of the Soviet country.

In the days when the Germans were pushing toward Moscow, Zoya joined a partisan detachment. In the village of Petrishchevo, near the town of Vereya, a large German cavalry unit was stationed. Following the instructions given her by the commander of her detachment, Zoya stole into Petrishchevo one night and destroyed several huts occupied by Germans and a stable where horses of the cavalry unit were sheltered. Two days after her return to the detachment Zoya was given a fresh assignment. Again slipping into Petrishchevo she attempted to set fire to a large stable in which there were over two hundred horses, but was seized by a German guard.

She was interrogated personally by lieutenant-colonel Rüder, commander of the 332nd Infantry Regiment of the 197th Division. Zoya told nothing. She even concealed her name, calling herself "Tanya." She was whipped with leather belts, lead barefooted and half naked over the snow and tortured in many ways, but nothing could extort from her a confession, or break her will. On the day of her execution the Germans herded all the villagers to the gallows. Turning to her compatriots, Zoya cried out:

"Comrades! Why look so somber! Be bolder, fight, strike

at the Germans, burn their stocks, harrow them! . . . I'm not afraid of death, comrades! It is an honour to die for one's people. . . ."

The hangman tightened the noose and the knot pressed into Zoya's throat. She grabbed the noose in her hands, loosened it, stood up on tiptoe, and summoning her last strength cried out again:

"Farewell, comrades! Keep up the fight, don't fear! Stalin is with us! Stalin will come! . . ."

"Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya," wrote the late M. I. Kalinin, "the Young Communist League member and partisan, had risen to the highest level of patriotism and moral greatness. She seems to have absorbed all of the best sentiments and qualities brought out by our people in the course of its historical development. She is the daughter not only of the Russian people, but of all Soviet peoples, the daughter of the Lenin Young Communist League. Through barbarian cruelty fascism aimed to debase Soviet womanhood, to break its moral backbone. But in this it utterly failed. The moral stalwartness of Zoya and of other Soviet girls and women has triumphed over fascist beastliness."

Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya was awarded posthumously the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

NATASHA KOVSHOVA (1920-1942) MARIA POLIVANOVA (1922-1942)

NATASHA KOVSHOVA, a Moscow member of the Young Communist League, was all prepared to enter the Aviation Institute. But the war broke out and frustrated her plans. When Hitler Germany attacked the Soviet Union, Natasha joined the army as a volunteer.

In those days the youthful patriot wrote to her mother: "You may rest assured, mother dear, that your daughter will fight to her last breath, to her last drop of blood."

Together with her friend MARIA POLIVANOVA, a Young Communist League member from Tula region, Natasha Kovshova learned marksmanship to perfection.

In a furious but unequal battle at one of the approaches to Moscow, snipers Kovshova and Polivanova, covering the withdrawal of their unit, found themselves surrounded by the enemy. They used up all their ammunition and not wishing to surrender, they blew themselves up with hand grenades, killing at the same time several of the approaching Germans.

The heroism of these remarkable girls was highly rated by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., and they were both posthumously awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

LISA CHAIKINA (1918-1941)

WHEN the Germans occupied Peno, the administrative centre of one of the districts of Velikolukski region, Lisa Chaikina, secretary of the district committee of the Young Communist League, joined the partisans. More than once she participated in active guerilla warfare and more than once she went out on scouting expeditions. In mid-November of 1941 Lisa was summoned by the commander of the partisan detachment. He gave her a small booklet. It was a print of Stalin's speech delivered on the occasion of the 24th anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

"Go behind the enemy lines," said the commander, "and talk to the people about what Stalin said. But don't take any unnecessary risks. If it gets dangerous, get out."

That same day Chaikina went to some near-by villages occupied by the Germans and began her talks with the peasants about Stalin's report. She visited many villages, urging the

peasants to fight the enemy and giving them assurance of eventual victory. Wherever the brave girl went she was warmly received by the peasants, whose emotions she stirred to tears.

In one of the villages a former kulak betrayed her to the Germans. Lisa was seized, beaten and dragged in her chemise through the bitter frost to her native village Peno where the German staff was quartered. There she was questioned as to who sent her, and where her comrades were. "Death to you, murderers!" she replied. She was beaten with rods and tortured in every conceivable way, but she kept silent. On November 23, 1941 Lisa was led before a firing squad.

"I am dying for my country and for my people . . ." were the last words she uttered.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. posthumously awarded Lisa Chaikina the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

TIMUR FRUNZE (1923-1942)

TIMUR FRUNZE, son of the prominent general of the Soviet Army, the late Mikhail Vassilievich Frunze, finished a pilot training school and was despatched to the front.

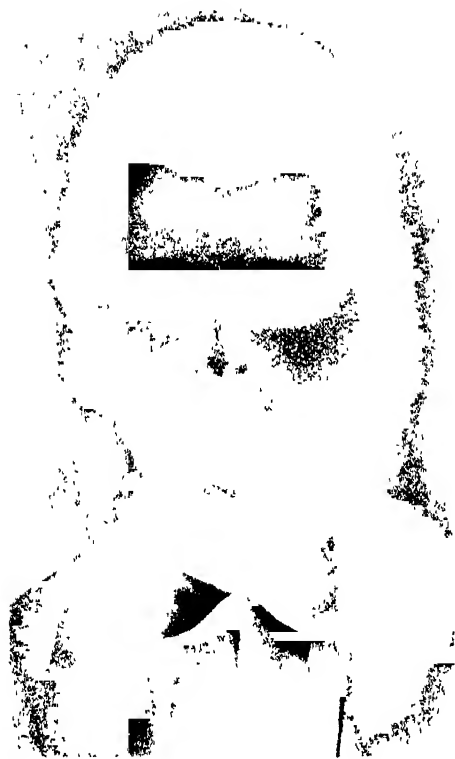
In his first aerial battle he shot down an enemy plane and proved himself a brave and capable flyer. At times Timur Frunze fought five and six air battles a day.

Patrolling the air with one of his comrades, Timur ran into

four "Messerschmidts 109." He shot one of the fascist planes down. The Hitlerites summoned three more "Messerschmidts." The plane of Timur's comrade caught fire and crashed to earth. Frunze remained alone against six enemy fighters. In this unequal battle Timur Frunze, Hero of the Soviet Union and a fearless son of his nation, gave his life for the good of his country and for the welfare of his people.



OLEG KOSHEVOI



LYUBOV SHEVTSOVA



SERGEI TULENIN



ULYANA GROMOVA



IVAN ZEMNUKHOV

THE HEROES OF KRASNODON

THE GERMANS invaded the town of Krasnodon in the

Donetz basin towards the end of July 1942 and immediately instituted their regime of mass slaughter and torture of innocent Soviet people, of plunder and public executions, of seizure of young men and women for slave labour in Germany.

During this reign of savage fascist terror a Young Communist League underground organization, "Young Guard," came into being. The organizers and leaders of the Young Guard were Oleg Koshevoi, Ivan Zemnukhov, Sergei Tulenin, Ulyana Gromova, Lyubov Shevtsova, Ivan Turkenich. The eldest of them had just turned 10.

Everybody who joined the Young Guard was required to swear a solemn oath: "I . . . entering the ranks of the Young Guard solemnly vow to my comrades-in-arms, to my own much-suffering land, to my people . . . to take ruthless vengeance for the burned devastated towns and villages, for the blood of our people. . . . And if this vengeance should demand my life I shall give it without a moment's hesitation."

Leaflets were pasted up in the busiest parts of the town, on the walls of houses, on fences and on telegraph poles, leaflets that told the true story of what was happening at the front and called on the people to take an active part in helping the heroic Soviet Army.

These leaflets were even pasted on buildings belonging to the police, the gendarmerie, and the municipal authorities. When the lights went out in the cinemas hundreds of leaflets were distributed amongst the audience by an unseen hand.

The leaflets called on the population to fight the invaders; they fortified the people's faith in the Soviet Army.

. . . The fascist invaders were preparing to send a large group of Soviet people to Germany for slave labour. But the day before the prisoners were to be driven away the local Labour Exchange, where the lists with the names of the victims were kept, was burned down. Sergei Tulenin, Lyubov Shevtsova and Victor Lukyanchenko, the Young Guards who burned down the Exchange, saved hundreds of Krasnodon people from slavery.

. . . Stacks of grain made ready for despatch to Germany were burned in the fields; there were accidents in the mines; an unseen hand organized the escape of Soviet officers and men imprisoned by the Germans. Here and there well-aimed

bullets brought down the invader. As a reprisal for the execution of innocent Soviet people two Hitlerites were hanged at night by unseen avengers. On November 7, 1942, on the occasion of the 25th anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution, red flags waved from the highest buildings in the town.

The Gestapo personnel were beside themselves in their efforts to find these elusive "Bolsheviks." The more savage the measures adopted by the occupation authorities the more daring became the sallies of the Young Guard. To the Germans the occupied town was like a powder magazine and eventually a punitive expedition was sent to Krasnodon to wipe out this group of people's avengers.

In the meantime the activities of the Young Guard increased, its membership grew to over a hundred. The Soviet Army was advancing towards the Donetz basin. The Young Guard made preparations for their long-cherished plan—the seizure of the town. The details were all worked out, forces were distributed and reconnaissance reports were gathered.

At this moment black treachery put an end to the activities of these young patriots.

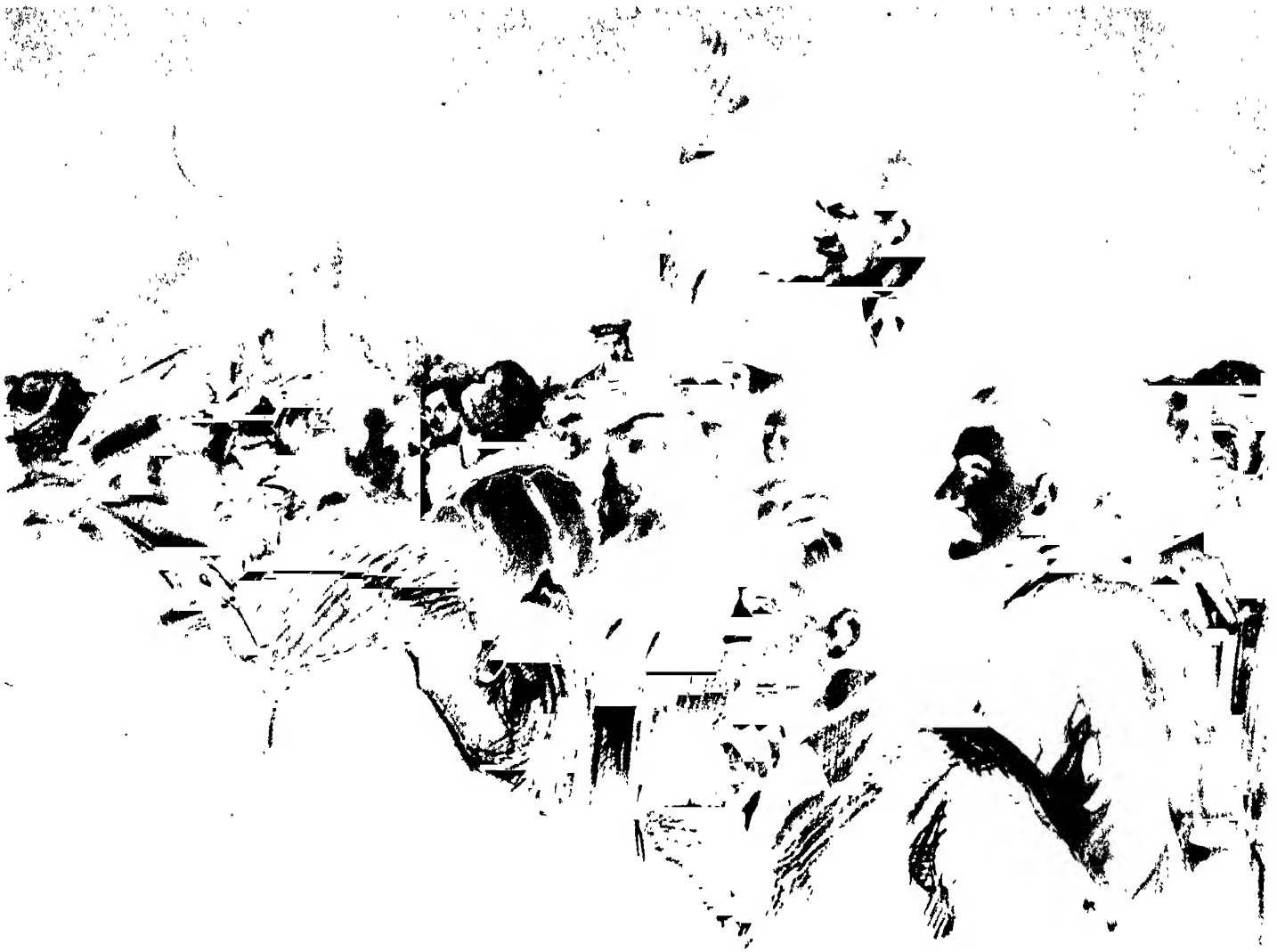
The young men and women were brought face to face with the fascist butchers but not one of them forgot the oath he had taken: although no more than boys and girls in age, they remained true to their oaths to the end.

The German butchers were frantic with rage: they flogged the Young Guard members, they gouged out their eyes, they drove nails under their fingernails, they branded stars on their bodies with hot irons.

Nothing, however, could break the will of the heroes. They did not ask for mercy and did not betray their comrades of the partisan units and underground organizations of the Ukraine.

The heroes died, but the cause for which they gave up their young lives triumphed.

The posthumous title of Hero of the Soviet Union was awarded to five fearless sons and daughters of the Soviet people—to Oleg Koshevoi, Ivan Zemnukhov, Sergei Tulenin, Ulyana Gromova and Lyubov Shevtsova. Those members of the Young Guard who remained alive were awarded Orders. Their life and struggle will always remain an example to the Soviet youth, an example of unbounded service to their country and their people.



Painting by P. Vassiliev

V. I. LENIN ADDRESSING THE FIRST ALL-RUSSIAN CONGRESS OF SOVIETS, 1917

THE FIRST ITEM ON THE AGENDA OF THE CONGRESS was the question of policy towards the Provisional Government, and the creation of a revolutionary power. The Mensheviks and the Socialist-Revolutionaries resolutely opposed the idea that power should be transferred to the Soviets. Scared by the sabotage of the bourgeoisie, and accustomed to be at its beck and call, the Socialist-Revolutionaries and Mensheviks endeavoured to give the masses a perverted idea of the character of the government. At the Congress, Tsereteli, the Menshevik leader, made the following emphatic assertion:

"There is no political party in Russia at this juncture which would say: 'Hand over the power to us, quit, we will take your place...'"

"There is no such party in Russia!" Tsereteli loudly insisted amid the tense silence of the audience.

And suddenly, like a thunderbolt, a voice resounded in reply:

"There is such a party!"

It was the voice of Lenin, hurling this challenge at the Mensheviks in the name of the Bolshevik Party.

The audience was electrified. The drowsy Socialist-Revolutionary and Menshevik delegates were suddenly jerked into wakefulness and began to buzz with excitement. Delegates rose to their feet to get a glimpse of the man who had hurled this challenge at the bosses. Consternation reigned among the leaders in the presidium. But Lenin was already mounting the rostrum.

"He said that there is no political party in Russia that would express its readiness to take the entire power upon itself," Lenin said. "I say there is! No party can refuse this, and our party does not refuse it; it is prepared at any minute to take over the entire power."

The unprincipled, pusillanimous and double-faced tactics of the Mensheviks were countered by the bold and firm policy of the Bolsheviks.



On June 3 (16), 1917, the First All-Russian Congress of Soviets met. The Bolsheviks were still in the minority in the Soviets; they had a little over 100 delegates at this congress, compared with 700 or 800 Mensheviks, Socialist-Revolutionaries and others.

At the First Congress of Soviets, the Bolsheviks insistently stressed the fatal consequences of compromise with the bourgeoisie and exposed the imperialist character of the war. Lenin made a speech at the Congress in which he showed the correctness of the Bolshevik line and declared that only a government of Soviets could give bread to the working people, land to the peasants, secure peace, and lead the country out of chaos.

A mass campaign was being conducted at that time in the working-class districts of Petrograd for the organization of a demonstration and for the presentation of demands to the Congress of Soviets. In its anxiety to prevent the workers from demonstrating without its authorization, and in the hope of utilizing the revolutionary sentiments of the masses for its own ends, the Executive Committee of the Petrograd Soviet decided to call a demonstration for June 18 (July 1). The Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries expected that it would take place under anti-Bolshevik slogans. The Bolshevik Party began energetic preparations for this demonstration. Comrade Stalin wrote in *Pravda* that "...it is our task to make sure that the demonstration in Petrograd on June 18 takes place under our revolutionary slogans."

The demonstration of June 18, 1917, was held at the grave of the martyrs of the revolution. It proved to be a veritable review of the forces of the Bolshevik Party. It revealed the growing revolutionary spirit of the masses and their growing confidence in the Bolshevik Party. The slogans displayed by the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries calling for confidence in the Provisional Government and urging the continuation of the war were lost in a sea of Bolshevik slogans. Four hundred thousand demonstrators carried banners bearing the slogans: "Down with the war!" "Down with the ten capitalist Ministers!" "All power to the Soviets!"

It was a complete fiasco for the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries, a fiasco for the Provisional Government in the capital of the country.

Nevertheless, the Provisional Government received the support of the First Congress of the Soviets and decided to continue the imperialist policy. On that very day, June 18, the Provisional Government, in obedience to the wishes of the British and French imperialists, drove the soldiers at the front to take the offensive. The bourgeoisie regarded this as the only means of putting an end to the revolution. In the event of the success of the offensive, the bourgeoisie hoped to take the whole power into its hands, to push the Soviets out of the arena, and to crush the Bolsheviks. Again, in the event of its failure, the entire blame could be thrown upon the Bolsheviks by accusing them of disintegrating the army.

There could be no doubt that the offensive would fail. And fail it did. The soldiers were worn out, they did not understand the purpose of the offensive, they had no confidence in their officers who were alien to them, there was a shortage of artillery and shells. All this made the failure of the offensive a foregone conclusion.

The news of the offensive at the front, and then of its collapse, roused the capital. The indignation of the workers and soldiers knew no bounds. It became apparent that when the Provisional Government proclaimed a policy of peace it was hoodwinking the people, and that it wanted to continue the imperialist war. It became apparent that the All-Russian Central Executive Committee of the Soviets and the Petrograd Soviet were unwilling or unable to check the criminal deeds of the Provisional Government and themselves trailed in its wake.

The revolutionary indignation of the Petrograd workers and soldiers boiled over. On July 3 (16) spontaneous demonstra-

tions started in the Vyborg District of Petrograd. They continued all day. The separate demonstrations grew into a huge general armed demonstration demanding the transfer of power to the Soviets. The Bolshevik Party was opposed to armed action at that time, for it considered that the revolutionary crisis had not yet matured, that the army and the country at large were not yet prepared to support an uprising in the capital and that an isolated and premature rising in the capital might only make it easier for the counter-revolutionaries to crush the vanguard of the revolution. But when it became obviously impossible to keep the masses from demonstrating, the Party resolved to participate in the demonstration in order to lend it a peaceful and organized character. This the Bolshevik Party succeeded in doing. Hundreds of thousands of men and women marched to the headquarters of the Petrograd Soviet and the All-Russian Central Executive Committee of Soviets, where they demanded that the Soviets take the power in their own hands, break with the imperialist bourgeoisie, and pursue an active peace policy.

Notwithstanding the pacific character of the demonstration, reactionary units—detachments of officers and cadets—were brought out against it. The streets of Petrograd ran with the blood of workers and soldiers. The most ignorant and counter-revolutionary units of the army were summoned from the front to suppress the workers.

After suppressing the demonstration of workers and soldiers, the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries, in alliance with the bourgeoisie and Whiteguard generals, fell upon the Bolshevik Party. The *Pravda* premises were wrecked. *Pravda*, *Soldatskaya Pravda* (*Soldiers' Truth*) and a number of other Bolshevik newspapers were suppressed. A worker named Voinov was killed by cadets in the street only for selling *Listok Pravdy* (*Pravda Bulletin*). Disarming of the Red Guards began. Revolutionary units of the Petrograd garrison were withdrawn from the capital and dispatched to the trenches. Arrests were carried out in the rear and at the front. On July 7 a warrant was issued for Lenin's arrest. A number of prominent members of the Bolshevik Party were arrested. The *Trud* printing plant, where the Bolshevik publications were printed, was wrecked. The Procurator of the Petrograd Court of Sessions announced that Lenin and a number of other Bolsheviks were being charged with "high treason" and the organization of an armed uprising. The charge against Lenin was fabricated at the headquarters of General Denikin, and was based on the testimony of spies and agents-provocateurs.

Thus the coalition Provisional Government—which included such leading representatives of the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries as Tsereteli, Skobelev, Kerensky and Chernov—sank to the depths of downright imperialism and counter-revolution. Instead of a policy of peace, it had adopted the policy of continuing war. Instead of protecting the democratic rights of the people, it had adopted the policy of nullifying these rights and suppressing the workers and soldiers by force of arms.

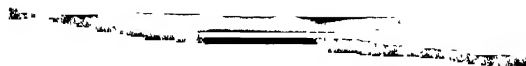
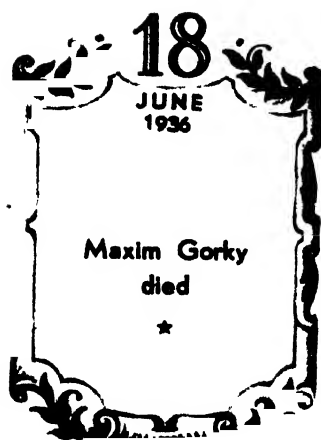
What Guchkov and Milyukov, the representatives of the bourgeoisie, had hesitated to do, was done by the "Socialists" Kerensky and Tsereteli, Chernov and Skobelev.

The dual power had come to an end.

It ended in favour of the bourgeoisie, for the whole power had passed into the hands of the Provisional Government, while the Soviets, with their Socialist-Revolutionary and Menshevik leaders, had become an appendage of the Provisional Government.

The peaceful period of the revolution had ended, for now the bayonet had been placed on the agenda.

In view of the changed situation, the Bolshevik Party decided to change its tactics. It went underground, arranged for a safe hiding place for its leader, Lenin, and began to prepare for an uprising with the object of overthrowing the power of the bourgeoisie by force of arms and setting up the power of the Soviets.



**"The Soviet government pursues no interests other
than those of the working people. It is the only
genuinely popular government in the world."**

1936

MAXIM GORKY

MAXIM GORKY

(1868-1936)

MAXIM GORKY (Alexei Maximovich Peshkov) was one of the greatest Russian writers. He inherited the best traditions of 19th century classical Russian literature and was at the same time the creator of a new art, socialist realism; he laid the foundations of the young Soviet literature.

Gorky was born in the old Russian town of Nizhni Novgorod on the Volga, a town which has since been renamed Gorky. His grandfather was a Volga boatman, his father a cabinetmaker; he was left an orphan in early childhood and was compelled to "go out into the world" at the age of ten. We see him as a shopboy, a cook's boy on board ship, a seller of song-birds, a super at the Fair Theatre, baker, stevedore and railwayman.

The oppressive weight of privation and sorrow that he bore, the cynicism, filth and cruelty of the philistine world in which he lived, would have crushed the youth had it not been for his indomitable will to live, his profound faith in the creative strength of the people, the passionate thirst for knowledge which carried the self-educated genius to the very peak of world culture, and, lastly, if it had not been for his connections with the proletarian revolutionary movement which in his early youth opened up before him the road of struggle for the socialist reconstruction of society.

In 1892 Maxim Gorky, an unknown worker in a railway workshop, printed his first story, *Makar Chudra*, in the Tiflis newspaper *Kavkaz*. With the help and encouragement of Vladimir Korolenko, a noted Russian writer, Gorky became a regular contributor to the newspapers of the Volga towns. In 1898 he published two volumes of his stories and sketches which brought the young writer fame and popularity.

In the 'nineties Gorky wrote a cycle of short stories about the down-and-outs, people whom life had thrown overboard but who had managed to retain feelings of liberty and human pride under their rags, and who still possessed that genuine humanity which had been rapidly disappearing from the mercenary ways of life of the bourgeois society. He dealt with the same question in his first novel *Foma Gordyey* (1899) in which the profound social drama of his rebel hero—a clean and honest youth who found himself up against the lies and wolfish ways of the class that had educated him—was played out against the background of the life led by the Volga merchants.

In the early years of this century Gorky came under the influence of Anton Chekhov and through him established contact with Konstantin Stanislavsky and Vladimir Nemirovich-Danchenko, the leading figures of the Moscow Art Theatre; for this theatre he wrote his plays *Philistines* and *The Lower Depths*. *The Lower Depths* made a triumphant tour of many European countries and brought the writer world fame.

The tsarist government tried in vain to put an end to his activities by constant arrests and exile. In the eyes of all progressive Russian society Maxim Gorky had already become the herald of the oncoming revolution. He drew near to the Bolsheviks and took an active part in the 1905 Revolution. In 1906 Gorky visited Western Europe and America where he publicly exposed the reactionary nature of the Russian autocracy and expounded the great idea that underlay the Russian popular revolutionary movement.

In that same year he completed his novel *Mother* which has been translated into the chief European languages and has become a favourite of working-class readers the world over. This book gives a

comprehensive picture of the revolutionary working-class movement in Russia. It is permeated with a profound conviction of the final triumph of the proletariat. "Russia will be the most clear-cut democracy on earth," said one of the characters of *Mother*.

The publication of *Mother* and the author's open attacks on tsarism led to his persecution by the tsarist authorities. He could not return to his native land, and settled down on the Italian island of Capri. In these years the friendship between the great writer and Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, the great leader of the working class, grew stronger and turned into effective collaboration.

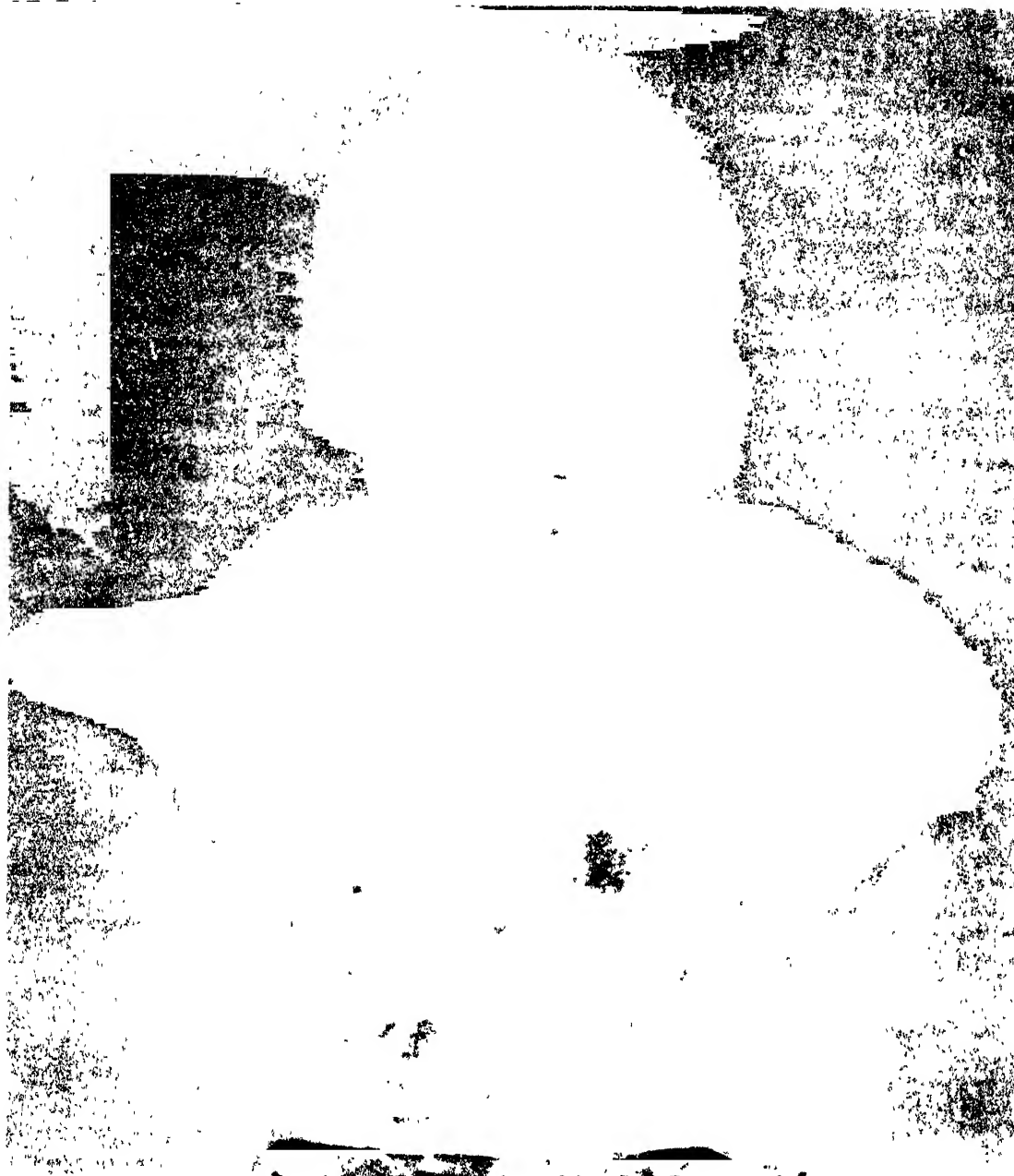
In the period between 1905 and 1917, Gorky published some splendid books: *The Townlet of Okurov* (1909), *The Life of Matvei Koshe-myakin* (1910), *Through Russia* (a collection, 1913-17), and two parts of his autobiographical trilogy *Childhood* (1913) and *In the World* (1916); the trilogy was completed after the October Revolution with the book *My Universities* (1923). These three books belong to the memoir-chronicle genre; they bring before the reader an endless procession of characters and scenes drawn with exceptional plasticity and great mastery. The countless people and places are woven into a single pattern by a common theme—the people, the life of the Russian people. Gorky did not diverge in one iota from the truth but through all the gloom and the seamy sides of the life of the people, born of centuries of slavery and oppression, he was able to show the wholesome, actively creative traits of its character.

A new stage in Gorky's creative writing began with the October Revolution. It was marked by his search for the ultimate synthesis, by the writing of great books that to a certain extent summarized the path of development traversed by the writer. Such were his philosophico-historical works *The Artamonovs* (1925) and his four-volume *The Life of Klim Samgin* (1927-36) which depict the intricate and dramatic process of the rise and fall of old bourgeois Russia, a process that led to the establishment of the world's first Socialist state.

Maxim Gorky was the initiator and organizer of many cultural and publishing undertakings in the country. His work for the public good assumed tremendous proportion, and was facilitated by his many years of close contact with the leaders of the revolution—Lenin and Stalin. Maxim Gorky posed the question of the importance and the role of the writer in all its profundity, laying stress on the fact that the writer's participation in the work of building up the new Soviet society was of state significance. Gorky became a strict, wise and attentive teacher for Soviet writers. The successes achieved by Soviet literature are closely connected with his name.

Gorky's articles on the struggle of progressive mankind against fascism were tremendously effective in the Patriotic War against Germany. Long before the war of 1941-45 Maxim Gorky, with unusual foresight, saw in fascism a mortal threat to humanity, a cancer that had formed in the world and had to be immediately removed.

The writer's influence on the Soviet people has been enormous; from 1917 to 1946 his books were published in 66 languages with a total printing of 42,000,000 copies. His pen and his civic activities were a powerful weapon against fascism. The enemy realized this and in 1936 fascist agents killed Maxim Gorky. They were, however, unable to kill the courageous, fiery and eternally living words of the great Soviet writer which are so carefully preserved and esteemed by the liberty-loving peoples of the whole world.



Bust by M. Gerasimov

ALEXANDER MATROSOV



ALEXANDER MATROSOV

ALLEXANDER MATROSOV ranks among the most popular heroes born of the war of the Soviet people against the Nazi invaders. The memory of this Russian boy is cherished and revered by all his fellow countrymen.

Matrosov, a private, was a tommy-gunner of the 254th Rifle Regiment, 56th Guards Rifle Division. He was nineteen when he performed the deed that has covered his name with undying glory.

It was in 1942, on Soviet Army Day, that Matrosov's battalion was ordered to capture the village of Chernushki, near Velikiye Luki. The Young Communist League members of the battalion unit were meeting to decide how best to carry out this order. Matrosov took the floor and said:

"I shall keep on fighting the Germans as long as I can hold a gun in my hands, as long as my heart continues to beat. I shall battle for our soil in utter contempt of death!"

He remained loyal to his pledge until he breathed his last.

* * *

All night long the battalion moved up through a wood, a group reaching its fringe at dawn. The men still had to cross a clearing dotted with islets of underbrush and saplings. Beyond lay Chernushki. But here they met the enemy, his pillboxed machine guns rattling away on a near-by eminence. The battle began. Repeatedly groups of Russian tommy-gunners tried to crawl across the space that separated them from the pillboxes of the enemy, but were mown down each time.

Some of Matrosov's pals already lay dead on the field of battle. From the fortress on the eminence still resounded the rat-a-tat of a machine gun, letting Matrosov know that where its bullets rippled the dirt Soviet soldiers had taken ground,

many dyeing the soil with their blood. He raised his head and said, quietly but determinedly:

"I'm going."

With bated breath all watched the brave lad as he crept quite close to the pillbox. Suddenly he flung his automatic into position and let them have a burst. There was a crash in the pillbox; it later transpired that his shots had hit a mine. The German machine gun fell silent, and the Soviet soldiers heaved a sigh of relief. But only a few minutes passed before the machine gun was spitting again. Then, lo! the men beheld Matrosov rising from the ground, and with his youthful body sealing the embrasure from which the shots were issuing. The excitement in the fighting ranks now reached its highest pitch. The Soviet soldiers made one grand dash and the forest fortress fell. Chernushki was freed from the German invader.

Like a true son of his great nation, Alexander Matrosov gave his life in the battle for the freedom, honour and independence of his country. By decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., the title of Hero of the Soviet Union was posthumously conferred upon him. And by order of the People's Commissar of Defence of the U.S.S.R., Joseph Stalin, the regiment in which he served was given the name Matrosov. He is forever inscribed in the roll of the 1st Company, 254th Guards Regiment.

Every day when the company lines up for roll-call, his is the name called first. Loud and solemnly ring out the words:

"Guards Private Alexander Matveyevich Matrosov, Hero of the Soviet Union!"

"Died the death of a hero; killed in action against the German invader," the Right man makes reply. And at that moment all the ranks recall Private Alexander Matrosov, the fearless Russian soldier.

YURI SMIRNOV—A DEATHLESS HERO

AMONG THE HEROES of the late war was Yuri Smirnov, a private in a Soviet guards regiment. Our troops came upon his crucified body near Shalashino village, Vitebsk region, and learned the story of his peerless fortitude. Out with a party of tank-borne infantry, Smirnov had been badly wounded and had fallen into enemy hands. The Germans had pressed him for military information. But Smirnov would say nothing,

even under torture, neither threats nor promises could make him speak. Infuriated by his resistance, the Nazis nailed him to the cross—he endured even that without uttering a word.

By a decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., issued on October 6, 1944, Yuri Smirnov was named posthumously Hero of the Soviet Union.



"HISTORY SHOWS THAT THERE ARE NO INVINCIBLE ARMIES AND THAT THERE NEVER HAVE BEEN. NAPOLEON'S ARMY WAS CONSIDERED INVINCIBLE, BUT IT WAS BEATEN SUCCESSIVELY BY THE TROOPS OF RUSSIA, ENGLAND AND GERMANY. KAISER WILHELM'S GERMAN ARMY IN THE PERIOD OF THE FIRST IMPERIALIST WAR WAS ALSO CONSIDERED AN INVINCIBLE ARMY, BUT IT WAS DEFEATED SEVERAL TIMES BY RUSSIAN AND ANGLO-FRENCH TROOPS, AND WAS FINALLY ROUTED BY THE ANGLO-FRENCH TROOPS. THE SAME MUST BE SAID OF HITLER'S GERMAN FASCIST ARMY TODAY. THIS ARMY HAS NOT YET MET WITH SERIOUS RESISTANCE ON THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE. ONLY ON OUR TERRITORY HAS IT MET WITH SERIOUS RESISTANCE. AND AS A RESULT OF THIS RESISTANCE THE FINEST DIVISIONS OF THE GERMAN FASCIST ARMY HAVE BEEN DEFEATED BY OUR RED ARMY. IT SHOWS THAT HITLER'S FASCIST ARMY CAN ALSO BE AND WILL BE DEFEATED AS WERE THE ARMIES OF NAPOLEON AND WILHELM."

STALIN

JULY 3, 1941

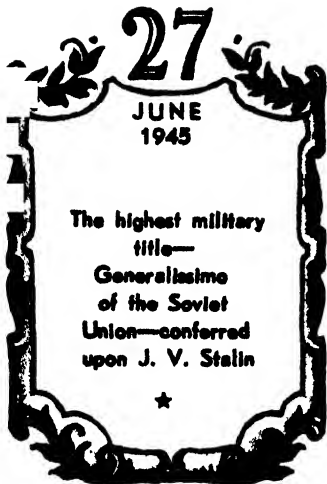
"THIS WAR HAS BEEN FORCED UPON US NOT BY THE GERMAN PEOPLE, NOT BY THE GERMAN WORKERS, PEASANTS AND INTELLECTUALS, WHOSE SUFFERINGS WE WELL UNDERSTAND, BUT BY THE CLIQUE OF BLOODTHIRSTY FASCIST RULERS OF GERMANY, WHO HAVE ENSLAVED THE FRENCH, THE CZECHS, THE POLES, THE SERBS, NORWAY, BELGIUM, DENMARK, HOLLAND, GREECE AND OTHER NATIONS.

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE SOVIET UNION EXPRESSES ITS UNSHAKABLE CONFIDENCE THAT OUR VALIANT ARMY AND NAVY AND THE BRAVE FALCONS OF THE SOVIET AIR FORCE WILL ACQUIT THEMSELVES WITH HONOUR IN PERFORMING THEIR DUTY TO THE MOTHERLAND, TO THE SOVIET PEOPLE, AND WILL INFLICT A CRUSHING BLOW UPON THE AGGRESSOR . "



MOLOTOV

JUNE 22, 1941



Painting by I. Toidze

**GENERALISSIMO OF THE SOVIET UNION
I. V. STALIN**

J U L Y

- JULY 1, 1917** *A demonstration of workers and soldiers held in Petrograd. Four hundred thousand demonstrators marched with the Bolshevik slogans: "Down with the War!" "Down with the ten capitalist Ministers!" "All power to the Soviets!"*
- JULY 3, 1941** *Radio address of J. V. Stalin, Chairman of the State Committee of Defence.*
- JULY 3, 1941** *Nikolai Gastello, Hero of the Soviet Union, perished in battle against German invaders.*
- JULY 3, 1944** *Units of Soviet Army liberated Minsk, capital of Byelorussia, from German invaders.*
- JULY 4, 1918** *Opening of Fifth All-Russian Congress of Soviets which adopted the Constitution of the R.S.F.S.R.*
- JULY 8, 1944** *Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. adopted Decree on increasing the state aid to expectant mothers, mothers of large families and unmarried mothers, on improving mother and child welfare, on instituting the honourable title "Mother-Heroine," the Order "Glory of Motherhood," and the "Medal of Motherhood."*
- JULY 13, 1944** *Units of Soviet Army liberated Vilnius, capital of Lithuanian S.S.R., from German invaders.*
- JULY 15, 1904** *Anton Chekhov, great Russian author, died.*
- JULY 15, 1937** *Moscow Canal opened.*
- JULY 16, 1917** *Huge armed demonstration of workers and soldiers held in Petrograd under the slogan: "All power to the Soviets."*
- JULY 19, 1917** *V. I. Lenin went into hiding following the issuance of a warrant for his arrest by the Provisional Government.*
- JULY 20** *Physical Culture Day.*
- JULY 23, 1943** *Soviet Army finally liquidated the July offensive started by the Germans from the regions south of Orel and north of Belgorod in the direction of Kursk.*
- JULY 24, 1828** *Birth of Nikolai Chernyshevsky, great Russian Revolutionary-Democrat, philosopher, and author.*
- JULY 27** *Soviet Navy Day.*
- JULY 27, 1841** *Mikhail Lermontov, great Russian poet, killed in a duel.*



Bust by Z. Azgur

CAPTAIN GASTELLO

CAPTAIN GASTELLO

(1907-1941)

ON JULY 3, 1941, a few days after the Nazi invasion began, Captain Nikolai Gastello of the Soviet air force was leading his squadron to bomb some German columns, when an A. A. shell hit his petrol tank and set the machine aflame. Through the flame and smoke, however, Gastello could make out a mass of German lorries and oil tanks below him. Cool and deliberate, he headed his blazing plane into their midst, and blew dozens of the enemy lorries and fuel carriers into the air together with himself.

The name of this hero and his immortal deed have come to symbolize the invincible courage of the Soviet people.

Who was Gastello?

He was born and bred in Moscow where his father, a peasant from Byelorussia, had removed to in 1900 in search of a

livelihood. For over twenty years Gastello's father worked in the foundry of the Kazan railway repair shops and there Nikolai too went to work while still in his teens. In the course of time Nikolai joined the Young Communist League branch at the foundry, and, at the age of twenty, the Communist Party. In 1932 the Party organization sent him to an aviation school. Years of persistent study and training followed, and at the end of them Gastello was a regular officer of the Soviet Air force. He had a tremendous admiration for Valeri Chkalov, that famous airman of our time.

When the German invasion came, Gastello never for a moment wavered in his faith in victory. Son of a mighty land, a soldier of the great Soviet Army, he died a victor. And what he did will live for ever in the memory of his victorious people.



GASTELLO'S FAMILY READING THE DECREE CONFERRING THE TITLE OF HERO OF THE SOVIET UNION ON HIM

4

JULY
1918

The Fifth
All-Russian Congress
of Soviets,
which adopted the
Constitution of the
R.S.F.S.R., opened



THE RUSSIAN SOVIET FEDERATIVE SOCIALIST REPUBLIC (R.S.F.S.R.)

OF THE SIXTEEN Union republics comprising the U.S.S.R. the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic (R.S.F.S.R.) occupies the leading place in point of territory, population, and economic and cultural significance.

The territory of the R.S.F.S.R. stretches from the rugged Arctic to the shores of the Black Sea, and from the Baltic to the Pacific, covering an area of 16,700,000 square kilometres, which constitutes over three-quarters of the surface of the Soviet Union.

The R.S.F.S.R., according to the census per January 17, 1939, has a population of 108,800,000, which is more than half the population of the Soviet Union. The bulk of the population (80 per cent) is made up of Russians.

The Russian people enjoy merited repute among all the peoples comprising the U.S.S.R. as an outstanding nation.

In the course of its age-long history the Russian nation has built up a vast realm and a great civilization.

Russian literature, science, music, painting and the theatre are an inestimable contribution to the treasures of world culture and human progress.

The Russian nation has created the most revolutionary working class in the world, a class that has forged in its struggle the powerful party of Bolsheviks.

Russia is the cradle of the Great October Socialist Revolution, the home of Leninism. The Russian nation has given to the world the great genius of Vladimir Ilyich Lenin.

In addition to Russians the R.S.F.S.R. is inhabited by numerous other nationalities, including the Tatars, Chuvashes, Mari, Bashkirs, Buryat-Mongolians, Yakuts, Kabardinians, Ossetians, Jews, Evenki, etc. The R.S.F.S.R. is the most multi-national of all the Soviet republics. It is constituted on federative principles.

The R.S.F.S.R. consists of 12 autonomous republics, 6 autonomous regions, 10 national areas, 6 territories and 47 regions.

The R.S.F.S.R. contains the capital of the Soviet Union, Moscow, which is also the capital of the republic. Moscow is the largest industrial and cultural centre of the country and the biggest Russian city with a population (1939 census) of over four million.

The R.S.F.S.R. came into existence as a result of the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution of November 7, 1917, which overthrew the power of the landlords and capitalists in Russia, established Soviet power and proclaimed equality and sovereignty for all the peoples of the country.

Before the revolution Russia lagged 50-100 years behind the advanced countries of the world in technical and economic development. The tsarist regime, which held the creative powers of the nation in leash, rendered the country impotent and incapable of weathering the ordeals of the First World War. Weakened by the war, Russia trembled on the brink of ruin. She was threatened by the danger of losing her state and national independence. The Soviet power, directed by the Party of Lenin-Stalin, saved the country. It organized the defeat of the combined forces of foreign intervention and internal counter-revolution, and upon the termination of the civil war (1918-20) placed before the nation the task of overcoming Russia's ancient backwardness.

At the dawn of Soviet power V. I. Lenin wrote: "In our natural wealth, in our stores of man power, and in the splendid impetus which the great revolution has imparted to the creative powers of the people, we have the material for the creation of a truly mighty and abundant Russia."

The natural resources of the Russian Federation are incalculable. Its territory contains 90 per cent of all the prospect-ed coal deposits of the U.S.S.R., 85 per cent of the iron ore, 95 per cent of the forests and 50 per cent of oil.

These vast resources include important deposits of rare elements such as nickel, cobalt, tungsten, chromium, beryllium, niobium, tantalum and other essentials in the manufacture of quality steel and alloys.

The republic disposes of considerable reserves of raw phosphorus and potassium necessary as fertilizers for raising the crop yields on the collective farms and state farms. On the basis of the Lenin-Stalin policy aimed at the industrialization of the country and the collectivization of agriculture, the Soviet people has in a short space of time effected such changes in the life and aspect of the country as have no precedent in world history. During the years of the Stalin Five-Year Plans the Russian Federation has passed through a phase of sweeping construction in which all the peoples of the republic participated.

In the course of 10-12 years, the R.S.F.S.R. was transformed from a pre-eminently agrarian country with a backward system of petty farming into a powerful industrial and collective-farm realm.

Before the Second World War the Russian Republic accounted for over two-thirds of the electric power generated in the U.S.S.R., for over 40 per cent of the coal mined, 80 per cent of copper and zinc, three-quarters of chemical products and 85 per cent of textiles. The R.S.F.S.R. accounts for the bulk of automobile, tractor, aeroplane, turbine, lathe and electrical equipment output.

Following the establishment in the Soviet Union of a second coal and metallurgical base (Urals-Kuzbas), the R.S.F.S.R. already in 1937 supplied 39.6 per cent of pig iron and 53.1 per cent of the total steel production. During the Five-Year Plans new industrial towns have sprung up, including Magnitogorsk, Komsomolsk, Dzerzhinsk, Stalinogorsk, Vorkuta, Khibinogorsk, etc, while dozens of other small towns, such as Stalinsk, Nizhni Tagil, Berezniki and Orsk, were transformed into great industrial centres.

During the same years the autonomous republics, autonomous regions and national areas comprising the Russian Federation underwent a rapid growth of industry. Whereas the output of large-scale industry increased in the R.S.F.S.R. in 1936 in comparison with 1913 seven-and-a-half times, the rate of increase in the Yakut A.S.S.R. was 14.9-fold, in the Udmurt A.S.S.R. 11.9, in the North Ossetian A.S.S.R. 16.7, Buryat-Mongolian A.S.S.R. 12.2 and Kabardinian A.S.S.R. 59.6-fold.

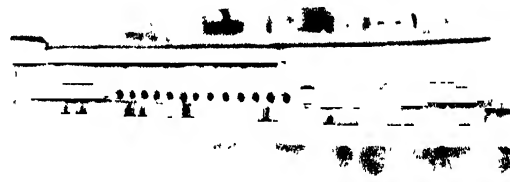
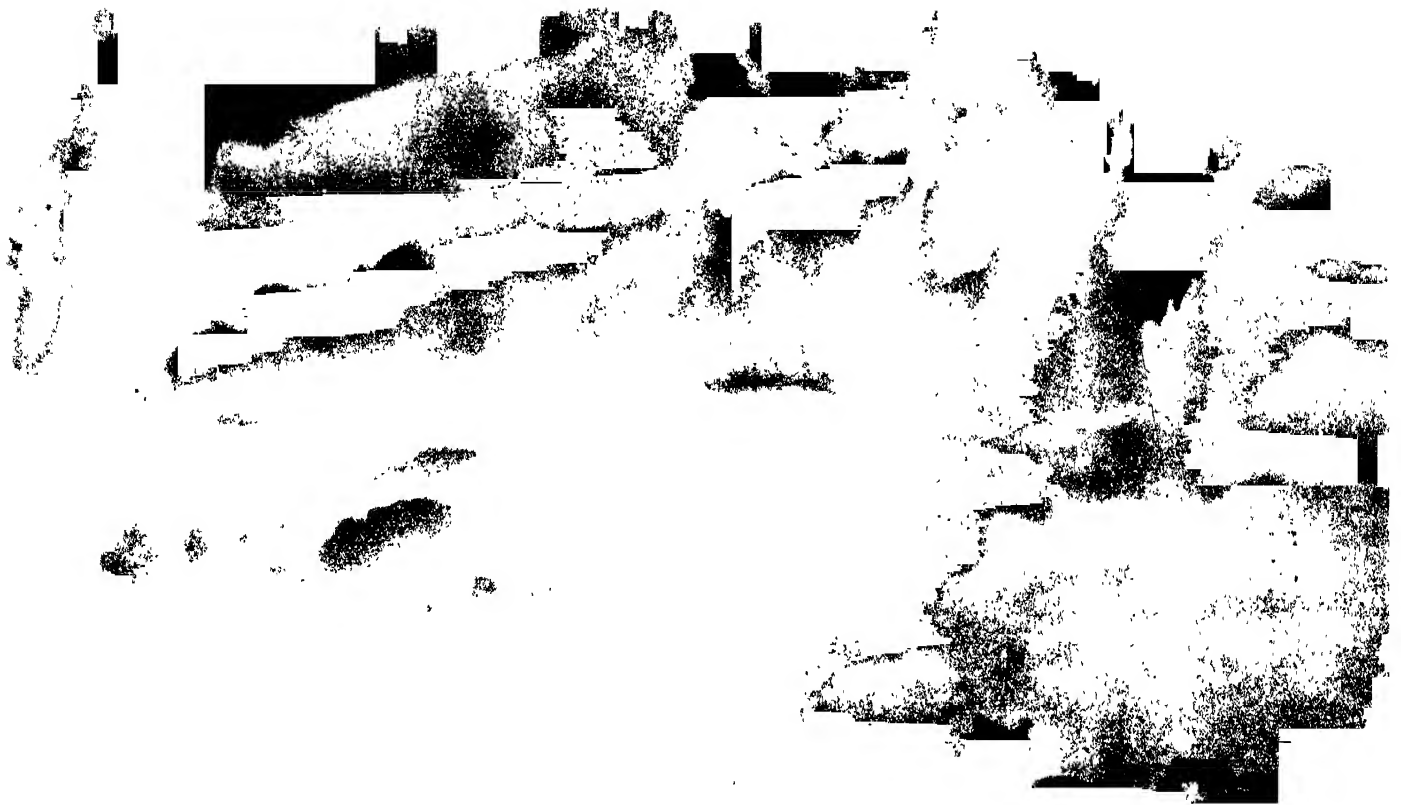
The R.S.F.S.R. is a country of complete collectivization and of the world's greatest mechanized agriculture. The Russian Federation counts 172,400 collective farms, and contains 64 per cent of the Soviet Union's cereal acreage. The republic plays a decisive role in the production of such crops as summer wheat, which occupy 78 per cent of the Union's acreage, and legumes comprising 66 per cent of the total crop in the Soviet Union. The summer crops of wheat in the Volga region and Siberia supply the world's best grain.

Before the war the R.S.F.S.R. furnished nearly three-quarters of the total wheat crops gathered in the U.S.S.R., over three-quarters of the rye, four-fifths of oats and over two-thirds of potatoes. The Russian Federation plays a particularly important part in flax cultivation, accounting for over 70 per cent of the total flax-growing area in the U.S.S.R. The high-grade fibre of Pakov, Vologda and Yaroslavl flax enjoy a long-established reputation.

An important contribution to the development of socialist agriculture and livestock breeding in the Soviet Federation has been made by the autonomous republics, autonomous regions and national areas. The collective-farm system has brought the peasantry of all the peoples and nationalities in the R.S.F.S.R. onto the road of prosperity and culture.

The great cultural revolution that has taken place in the Soviet Union is borne out by facts and figures from the life of the Russian Federation.

In 1940, the R.S.F.S.R. possessed 113,400 schools, nearly four times as many as there were in 1913 and 468 universities and higher schools of learning, or six-and-a-half times as many as in 1913. The number of students in the higher edu-



Summer on the Volga

A seal rookery in Southern Sakhalin



At a fishery in Astrakhan

Yenisei River, Siberia

educational institutions before the revolution was 85,000 as compared with 400,000 in the 1940-41 educational year. The total number of special secondary educational institutions (specialized technical schools) reached 2,200, being tenfold that of 1913. By 1937 the system of cultural-educational institutions comprised 42,344 libraries, 62,104 clubs, about 20,000 film services and 519 museums. In comparison with 500 newspapers published before the revolution, there are now over 6,000 newspapers with a total circulation of 27,000,000 copies. During a single decade, between 1937 and 1946, books were published in 3,713,000,000 copies. The network of medical institutions, such as hospitals, dispensaries, lying-in hospitals, children's hospitals, etc., has increased considerably. The number of hospital beds—400,000—shows a threefold increase over 1913. Of the 511 scientific-research institutions in the R.S.F.S.R. 410, or 80 per cent, were founded during the Stalin Five-Year Plans.

The conditions of socialist society have greatly stimulated the creative genius and faculties of the Russian people. A perfectly new, a genuine people's intelligentsia, possessing no counterpart in any other country, has grown from the ranks of the workers, peasants and other strata of the toiling population.

A striking illustration of the flourishing state of science, engineering, literature and art is furnished by the galaxy of Stalin Prize winners, many of whom enjoy world-wide repute.

The Russian scientists, academicians Vavilov, Bardin, Pryanishnikov, Zelinsky, Obruchev, Meshchaninov, Vinogradov, Abrikosov, Speransky and numerous others have each in his respective field enriched Soviet and world science with important discoveries.

Contemporary Russian literature, represented by the names of such celebrated writers and poets as A. Tolstoy, Sholokhov, Fadeyev, Leonov, Novikov-Priboy, Prishvin, N. Ostrovsky, Mayakovsky, Tikhonov, Simonov, Tvardovsky and others, mirrors in vivid artistic compositions the heroic deeds of the Soviet people, the thoughts and emotions of the builders of a new world. Soviet literature, expressing progressive ideas, has millions of readers throughout the world.

Such famous old Russian theatres as the Art Theatre, the Bolshoi and the Maly are flourishing as never before and boast such admirable actors and singers of the old school and the new generation as Kachalov, Tarasova, Yelanskaya, Pashennaya, Mikhailov, Kozlovsky, Barsova, Obukhova, and Makasova, to mention only a few.

Russian film productions, such as *Chapayev*, *Lenin in October*, the *Maxim* series, *The Deputy of the Baltic*, *We are from Kronstadt*, *Alexander Nevsky*, *Peter I*, *The Tempest*, *The Vow*, *The Turning Point* are deservedly considered the finest in world cinematography.

Modern Russian music, represented by Shostakovich, Prokofiev, Alexandrov, Zakharov and other well-known composers, and painting and sculpture by such masters as Gerasimov, Grabar, Konchalovsky and Mukhina are well known both in the Soviet Union and abroad.

On the basis of Stalinist friendship among the peoples of the U.S.S.R. the great Russian nation has rendered tremendous aid to all the nations and peoples of the Russian Federation in developing a culture that is national in form and socialist in content. Many of these peoples were entirely illiterate before the revolution, or, like the Bashkirs, Buryat-Mongolians and peoples of the North, did not even possess an alphabet of their own. Under the Soviet government all of these peoples acquired their own written languages which in turn rendered possible the introduction of compulsory and universal elementary instruction in the native languages and the practically complete liquidation of illiteracy. The autonomous republics, autonomous regions and national areas now possess their own native intelligentsia, their own schools, higher educational institutions, scientific institutes and national theatres. Newspapers, magazines and books are published in the languages of all the nationalities comprising the Russian Federation.

The peoples of the R.S.F.S.R. have advanced from their midst many talented men and women in the realms of science, art and literature. To mention only a few names, there are G. Kamai, Professor of Chemistry in the Tatar A.S.S.R.; Hosa Namsorayev, the national writer of Buryat-Mongolia; A. Mubaryakov, People's Artist of the Bashkir A.S.S.R., and so on.

The historical role of the Russian nation as the leading factor in the Soviet Union was especially manifest during the Great Patriotic War against the fascist invaders. The R.S.F.S.R., the largest and most powerful of the Soviet republics, formed the nucleus around which all the other Soviet republics rallied to defend the honour, freedom and independence of their native Soviet land.

At the most crucial and difficult period of the war, when the country was faced with grave danger, the Russian people rallied as one man to fight for their Socialist homeland and were wholeheartedly joined by Soviet men and women of all nationalities.

Russian soldiers, officers and generals constituted the basic personnel of the Soviet Army. Their valour and bravery inspired the fighting men of other nationalities to deeds of emulation. The deathless exploit of the Russian soldier Alexander Matrosov was repeated by the Kirghiz Tumberdiev, the Uzbek Erjigitov, the Estonian Laar and the Udmurt Kulikov. The Ukrainian Ivan Kozhedub, the Armenian Nelson Stepanyan and thousands of other heroes of the Patriotic War learned intrepidity and the art of air combat from the famous Russian airman, thrice Hero of the Soviet Union Alexander Pokryshkin. The militant spirit of the Russian nation was exemplified in young Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya, in the girl-partisan Lisa Chaikina and other representatives of Soviet youth who showed contempt of death for the sake of their native country. The Russian hero-cities, Leningrad, Stalingrad and Sevastopol, have immortalized themselves as the incarnation of human courage and legendary valour.

In giving due to the great services rendered the country by the Russian nation, Joseph Stalin, in his address on May 24, 1945, said:

"I would like to propose that we drink to the health of the Soviet people, and primarily of the Russian people.

"I drink primarily to the health of the Russian people because it is the most outstanding of all the nations that constitute the Soviet Union.

"I drink to the health of the Russian people, because, during this war, it has earned universal recognition as the guiding force of the Soviet Union among all the peoples of our country.

"I drink to the health of the Russian people, not only because it is the leading people, but also because it is gifted with a clear mind, a staunch character and patience."

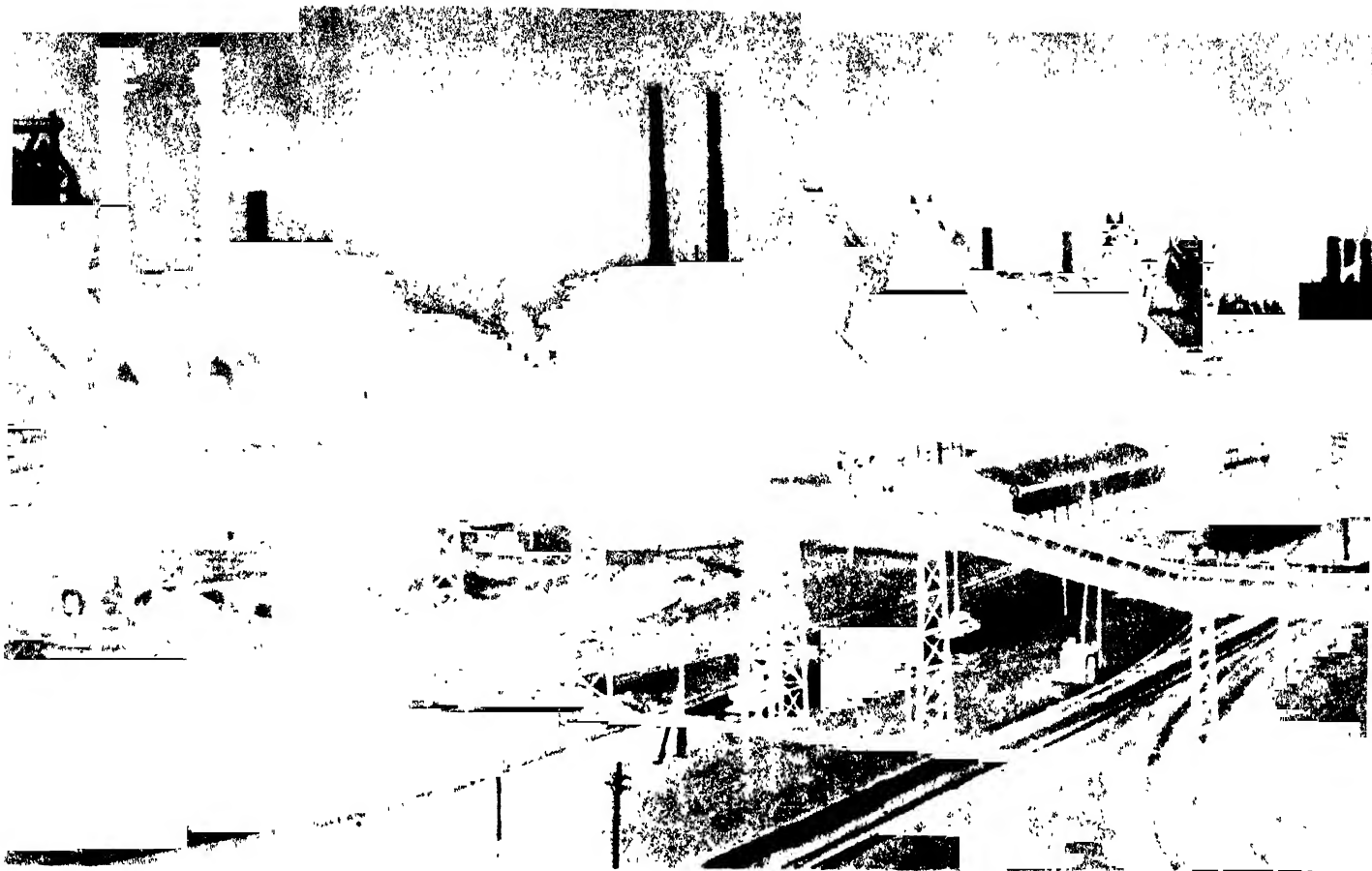
The German fascist invaders inflicted incalculable damage to the economics of the R.S.F.S.R. They destroyed over 12,000 industrial enterprises, wrecked over 50,000 collective farms, burned and razed about 3,000,000 houses and deprived over 11,000,000 people of their homes. The total sum of direct damage caused to the national economy and citizens of the Russian Republic amounts to 249,000,000,000 rubles.

Under the new Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy of the U.S.S.R. for 1946-50, the Russian Federation retains the leading role. Pig iron production by 1950 is planned to reach the figure of 9,500,000 tons in the republic, being a 66 per cent increase over the pre-war figure; steel production is to reach 16,000,000 tons and coal 141,900,000 tons, almost doubling the pre-war output. A considerable increase in machine output is scheduled for 1950 with an annual figure for that year of 28,500 metal working machines (almost double that of pre-war), 457,000 motor vehicles (trebling pre-war output), and 82,000 tractors (3.9-fold of pre-war production). Industrial output in the R.S.F.S.R. in 1950 will account for three-quarters of the Soviet Union's gross output.

The Five-Year Plan also provides for the further development of the light and foodstuffs industries, in order to furnish the population with an adequate supply of provisions and articles of general consumption. In 1950, the enterprises of the R.S.F.S.R. will produce over 4,000,000,000 metres of cotton fabrics, 129,000,000 metres of woollens and 158,000,000 pairs of leather footwear.

The annual harvest of grain in the R.S.F.S.R. at the end of the Five-Year Plan is scheduled at 80,400,000 tons. The collective farms and state farms of the republic will supply nearly two-thirds of the total yield of grain throughout the Soviet Union.

The republic's livestock breeding has suffered greatly as a result of the war. Under the Five-Year Plan this loss is to be made good with an excess over the pre-war level. The cattle



BLAST FURNACE SHOP AT THE STALIN FOUNDRY IN MAGNITOGORSK, 1946

herd is to be increased by 33 per cent, sheep and goats by 69 per cent and pigs by 300 per cent.

New orchards are to be laid out in the collective farms during the five years on an area of over 100,000 hectares, besides 20,000 hectares of vineyards and over 40,000 hectares of berry orchards.

The towns of the R.S.F.S.R. will receive in the same period 45,000,000 square metres of housing space, and the rural districts 1,270,000 new dwellings. The number of elementary, seven-year and secondary schools will be raised to 114,000 and the number of pupils to about 18,000,000. There will also be a considerable increase in the number of students attending the higher educational institutions of the republic.

In the sphere of public health the Five-Year Plan provides for the rebuilding and extension of the network of hospitals, polyclinics, dispensaries and other medical services. The number of hospital beds is to be increased to 645,000, by 37.5 per cent in comparison with pre-war. All the rest-homes and sanatoriums are to be restored. Huge investments are being made for developing science, which is called upon to play an ex-

ceedingly important part in the new Five-Year Plan. Moscow alone is to receive an appropriation of nearly one milliard rubles for the construction and extension of scientific institutions. Considerable attention is given under the plan to the development of new regions and territories which have become incorporated into the republic—Kaliningrad region, Petsamo region, Southern Sakhalin and the Kuril Islands.

The year 1946, the opening year of the new Stalin Five-Year Plan, was notable for important achievements in every sphere of socialist construction. Many dozens of big industrial enterprises were re-established in the war-stricken areas. In the rural districts which were ravaged by the fascist invaders, 712,000 houses have already been built and 75,000 more are in the process of construction. Towns and villages, collective and state farms, schools and hospitals are being revived, and everywhere are seething signs of immense building activities.

The R.S.F.S.R., the leading member in the happy family of equal Soviet Union Republics, is making a momentous contribution under the Five-Year Plan to the Soviet Union's gradual transition from Socialism to Communism.



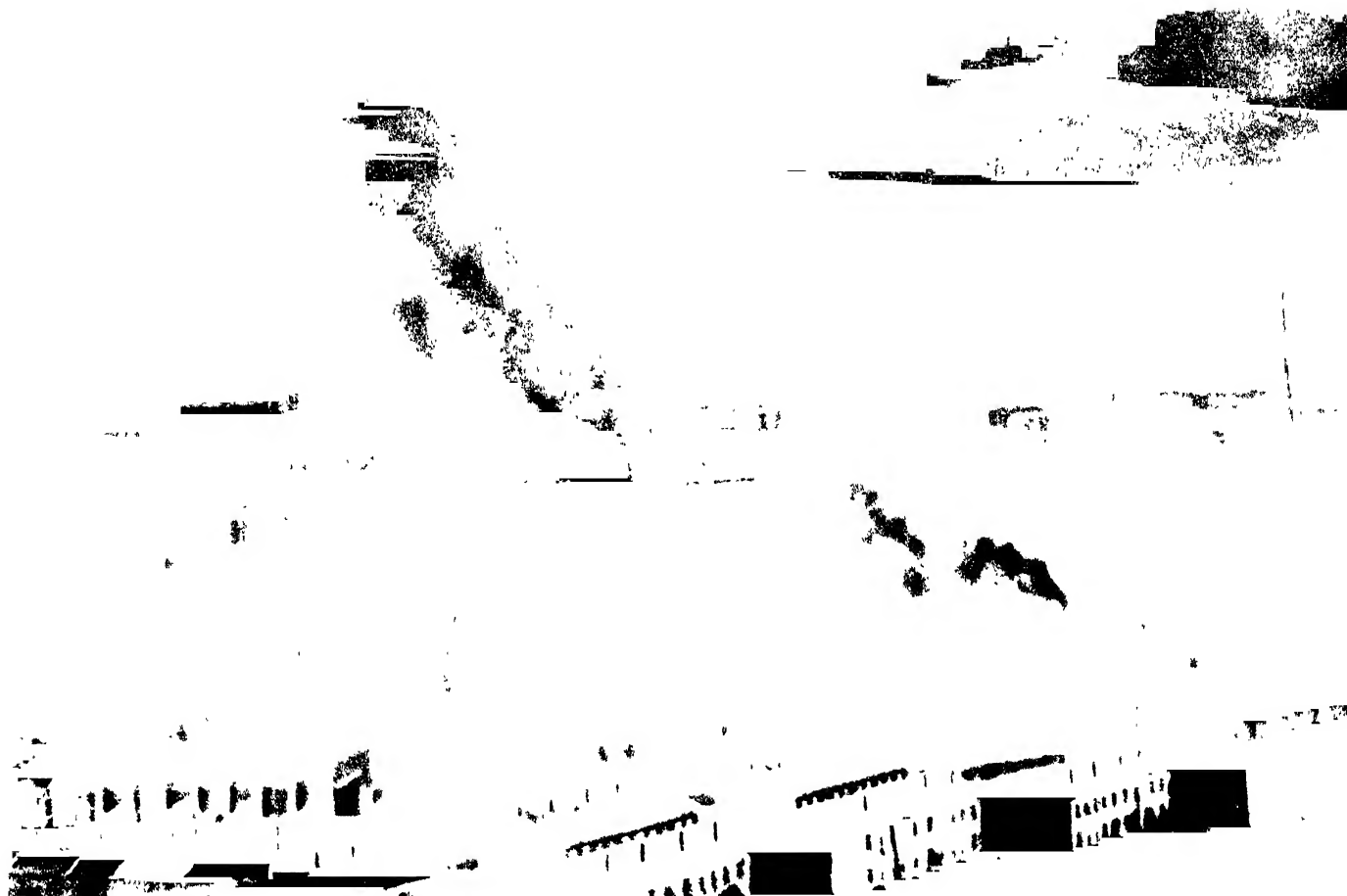
THE KUZNETSK STALIN

Melting pig iron at the
Fifth (Komsomol) Blast
Furnace, Magnitogorsk
Steel Mill. The Urals



Loading ore at the Kuznetsk Steel Mill



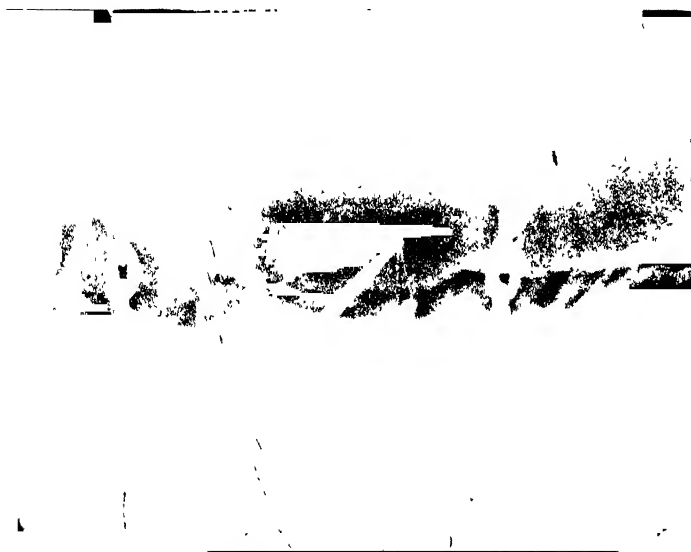


STEEL MILL, STALINSK

Ready for use. Chelyabinsk Tractor Plant



Working gold veins in the Chai-Urya valley. Kolyma



INDUSTRIAL URALS

FROM THE SHORES of the Kara Sea to the Caspian steppes, stretching for more than 2,500 kilometres along the boundary between Europe and Asia, lies the Ural Mountain Range. The natural resources of the region make it one of the most notable places in the world.

The surveyed deposits of iron ore in the Urals are the second biggest in the U.S.S.R. The region has huge deposits of alloying metals—chromium, nickel, cobalt, tungsten, molybdenum, vanadium and titanium. The Ural region contains the second largest deposits of copper and zinc ores, bauxite, magnesium and beryl ores, platinum, magnesite, potassium, asbestos, talcum, building stone, and potassium and magnesium salts. One of the largest oil-fields in the U.S.S.R. is in the Ural region; these oil deposits have been prospected over a vast area named the "Second Baku." The Urals are not very rich in coal and owing to this circumstance the importance of the Urals as an iron smelting centre (it was the leading "Black Country" of Russia in the 18th and 19th centuries) began to diminish toward the end of the 19th century, particularly due to the rapid growth of the young iron industry in the south of the country. The technical backwardness of the Urals iron industry with its small plants and shortage of coal prevented it from competing with the southern plants, which used Donetz coal and were better developed technically.

The revival of the Urals came together with the October Revolution. The Lenin-Stalin policy of socialist industrialization of the U.S.S.R. called for a new and more equitable distribution of the productive forces of the country, i.e., it required that the industry be brought closer to the sources of raw materials, that the eastern districts of the country be industrialized and that their industrial and cultural level be raised. Moreover, the industrialization of an enormous country could not depend on the coal and iron of the South alone. This made it necessary to build up another big coal and iron centre in the East by utilizing the rich ore deposits in the Urals and the inexhaustible coal deposits of the Kuznetsk basin in Western Siberia. To satisfy this need the construction of an immense Ural-Kuznetsk coal and iron combine was launched in the period covered by the first Stalin Five-Year Plan; it transformed the Urals into the largest metallurgical and machine-building centre in the U.S.S.R.

Nearly 100 old industrial enterprises were radically reconstructed and 149 new large enterprises were built fully or partly and put in operation in the Urals in the course of the first Five-Year Plan period; the latter include the Magnitogorsk Steel and Iron Works, the Chelyabinsk Ferrous Alloys Plant, the Ural Heavy Machine-Building Plant, the Chelyabinsk Tractor Plant, the Krasnouralsk Copper-Smelting Plant, the Bereznykov Chemical Combine, and six large electric power stations.

Summing up the results of the first Five-Year Plan, Stalin noted: "We had only one coal and metallurgical base—in the Ukraine—which we barely managed to keep going. We have not only succeeded in improving this base, but have created a new coal and metallurgical base—in the East—which is the pride of our country."

During the second Five-Year Plan period the investments in the industry of the Urals had grown by 3.5 times, with the result that by 1937 the Urals increased their productive capacity to more than 10 times that of 1913. In the course of the third Five-Year Plan period the industrial development of the Urals continued apace. In 1940 the capacity of the Ural machine-building and metal-processing industry exceeded the corresponding capacity of all Russia before the revo-

lution by approximately 250 per cent. The cities in the Urals grew rapidly. For example, in 1926 Sverdlovsk had a population of 140,000; by 1939 it had increased to 426,000; Chelyabinsk, a small provincial town, has grown into a large industrial city.

The Urals played an enormous part in the defeat of Hitler Germany and imperialist Japan. More than 700 industrial enterprises were evacuated to the Urals from the western districts of the country at the outbreak of the Great Patriotic War. All these enterprises used local raw materials. Under hard wartime conditions the patriots of the Urals daily increased the output of their factories and at the same time built new aircraft, tank and munitions plants, launched new electric power plants, new blast furnaces and mines. The Urals became a gigantic "Forge of Victory." During the four years of war the output of Ural industries increased 3.6 times over pre-war. In common with the workers, the collective farmers of the Urals contributed their share towards victory. Additional thousands of hectares of arable land were sown, and crops of kok-saghyz, sugar-beet, etc., new to this territory, made their appearance during the war.

As compared with pre-war, the Urals emerged from the war with a greater volume of industrial production, greater industrial reserves, and a greater number of skilled workers, schooled in the struggle against difficulties.

The Urals will play an enormous part in fulfilling the post-war Five-Year Plan for the restoration and further development of the national economy of the U.S.S.R. Metal-smelting will again be considerably increased in the Urals during the period of 1946-50. Sverdlovsk region, which extends approximately over one-third of the Urals' territory, will alone produce as much iron, steel and rolled steel in 1950 as the whole of the Urals did before the war. New steel and iron works will be built in the Urals under the fourth Stalin Five-Year Plan. The first section of a large copper-smelting plant will be built in the South Urals. The capacity of the aluminium plants in the North Urals will be considerably increased. Forty-nine new coal mines with a total annual capacity of 19,000,000 tons will be launched.

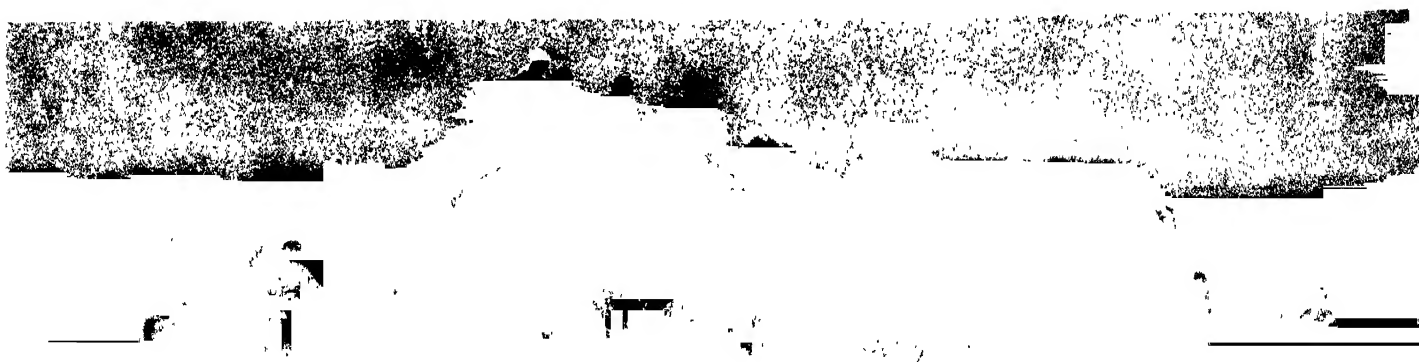
The oil extracting and refining industry in the "Second Baku" area will be further developed. The capacity of the Ural electric power plants will be increased by 1,300,000 kw. A large electric power plant will be built on the Kama River with a capacity nearly equal to that of the Dnioper Station. Production of potassium salts, super-phosphates and fertilizers will be considerably increased.


The Five-Year Plan provides for a big increase in the output of the machine-building industry. By the end of the new Five-Year Plan period the Ural Machine-Building Plant alone will produce yearly the equipment for six blast furnaces, two bloomings, 100 three-cubic-metre excavators, six cement-furnaces, 250 boring installations, and large quantities of other industrial equipment. The electrical industry will raise its output of motors, transformers and dynamos. The Ural automobile industry, which was founded during the war, will also increase its output.

Thousands of homes and hundreds of schools, clubs and palaces of culture will be built in the Urals in the course of the new five-year period. The network of medical institutions will be expanded. The Ural schools of higher learning will train 35,000 engineers, agronomists, physicians and teachers, and the technical schools—70,000 other specialists. The work of the 40 Ural scientific-research institutes will acquire a scope fully corresponding to the requirements of the further development of the powerful Ural industry.

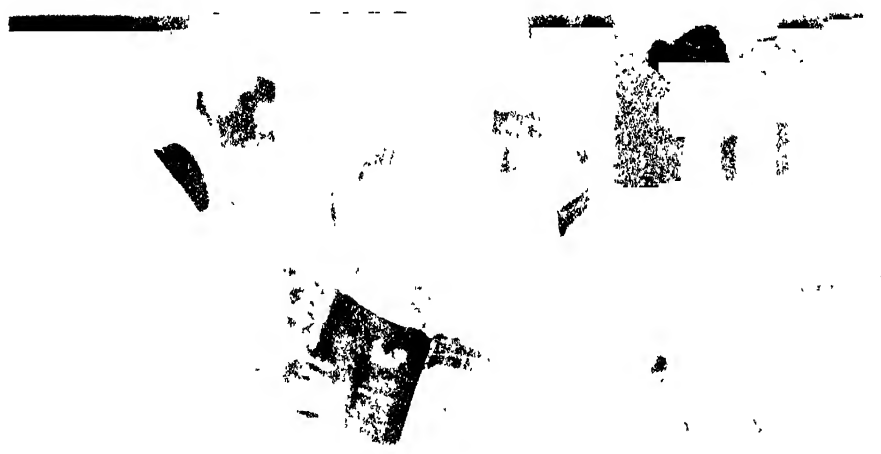


WHEAT THRESHING AT THE AVANGARD AND POBEDA PAKHARYA COLLECTIVE FARMS IN THE CORKY REGION

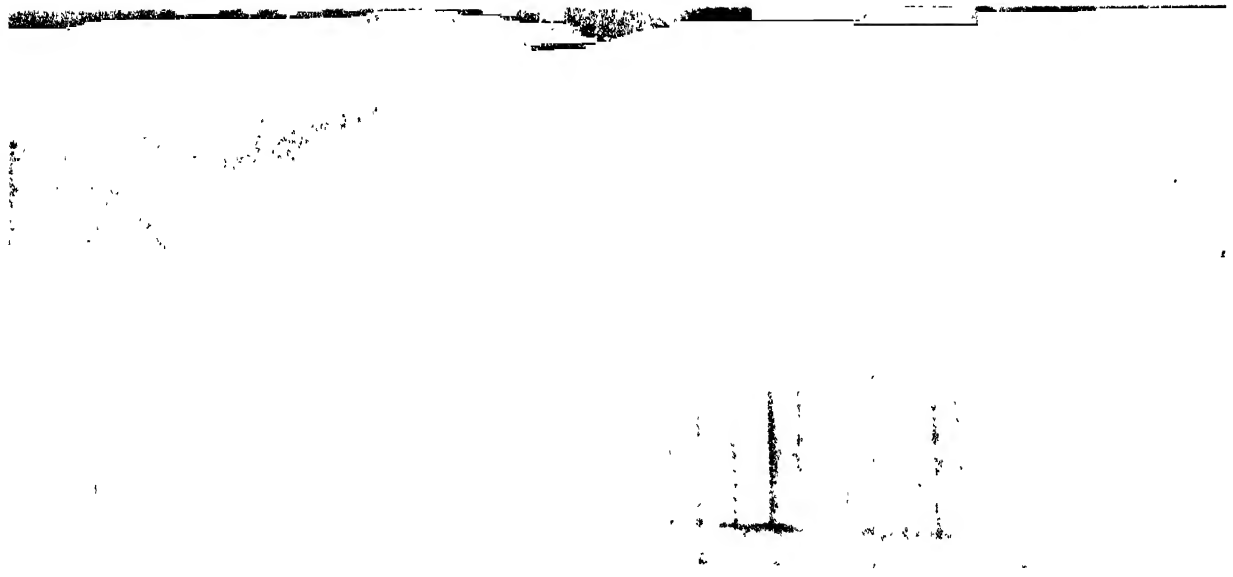




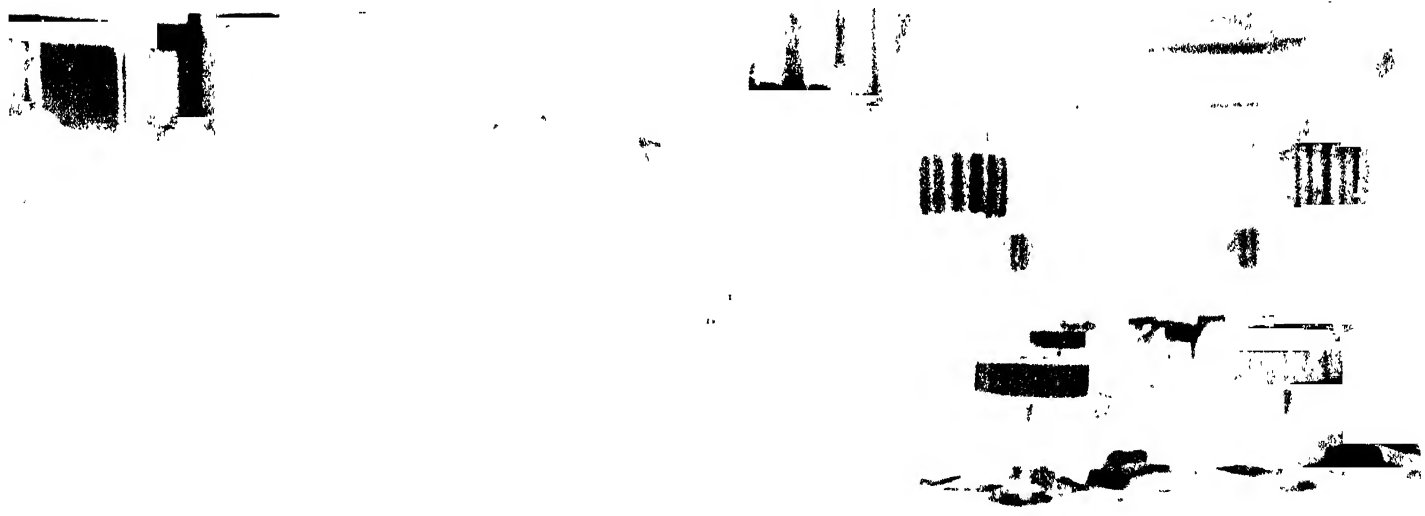
V. I. KACHALOV, PEOPLE'S ARTIST OF THE U.S.S.R., IN HIS STUDY



**V. A. DAVYDOVA, MERITED ARTIST OF THE R.S.F.S.R. AND THE
GEORGIAN S.S.R., AND DEPUTY TO THE SUPREME SOVIET
OF THE R.S.F.S.R., AT HOME WITH HER SON AND DAUGHTER**

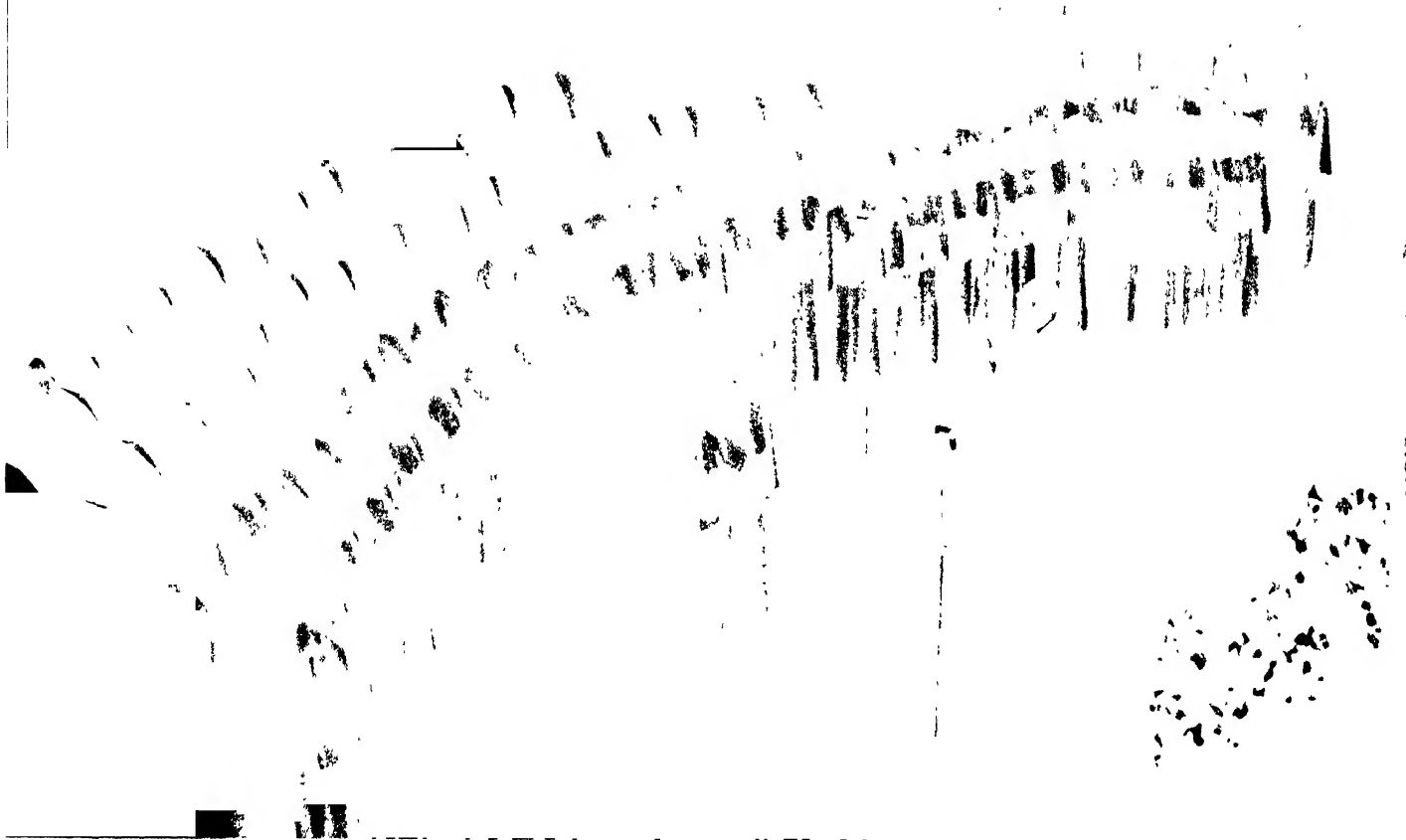


MARTHA KRYUKOVA, NOTED STORY-TELLER. VILLAGE ZIMNAYA ZOLOTITSA
ON THE SHORE OF THE WHITE SEA



In the Palace of Culture at the Stalin
Automobile Plant, Moscow

Library Room of the Palace of Culture at the Stalin
Automobile Plant, Moscow



THE STATE CHORUS OF RUSSIAN SONGS

AT THE END OF 1942, when some of the biggest battles of the Patriotic War were being fought, the State Chorus of Russian Songs was organized in Sverdlovsk by Alexander Sveshnikov, a noted choirmaster.

The chorus as at present constituted consists of 130 singers and performs old and modern Russian songs—peasant, urban, soldier, factory and student songs. Many of them reflect great events in the history of the Russian people. Quite a few of the songs were recorded by Sveshnikov from memory; Sveshnikov himself sang in a choir since the age of seven and has been working for over thirty years in this field.

The chorus has a very extensive repertoire: apart from Russian folk songs it includes many classics, from 16th century West European works to modern Soviet compositions. The repertoire includes many songs by classic Russian com-

posers—Rimsky-Korsakov, Moussorgsky, Chaikovsky, Lyadov. The extensive and varied repertoire and the masterly performances of the singers have made the Russian Song Chorus one of the favourite ensembles in the country.

The first concert given by the chorus in Moscow in July 1943, its tour of the Soviet Union and its later concert trips abroad—to Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Austria—have always been an unqualified success.

Alexander Sveshnikov, the choirmaster, is a Professor of the Moscow Conservatory of Music and the Dean of its Faculty of Choral Singing and Conducting; he is also director of a choral school for boys. Sveshnikov's work in the field of art has earned him the title of People's Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. He has been awarded a Stalin Prize.

FERAPONT COLOVATY AND GUARDS MAJOR B. YERYOMIN STANDING NEAR THE SECOND PLANE
DONATED BY COLOVATY TO THE SOVIET ARMY. 1944

DAWAB SALAF JUNG RAMADHIE

HERO BROTHERS

IN PEACETIME the twin brothers Dmitri and Yakov Lukanin work as masons, in wartime they were artillery gunners. They were not young when the war broke out—each was in his fortieth year.

They gained their first actual combat experience at Stalingrad when the city endured its most tense and critical period. But it was in the fight for the Dnieper River that the Lukanin brothers distinguished themselves. On October 19, 1943, a group of German tanks assailed the positions held by Soviet troops near the town of Pyatikhatka. They were the famous "Tiger" tanks, huge monsters clad in thick and heavy armour. In a shallow pit near the gun manned by the Lukanin brothers was a stack of shells and among them were some with special kinds of warheads capable of piercing the armour of a "Tiger."

The brothers opened fire. Shots followed rapidly one after another. They crippled three of the tanks and then, at a distance of not more than a hundred metres, they disabled the fourth and last tank.

The feat of the twins received deserving recognition. The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. awarded them both the title of "Heroes of the Soviet Union."

At present the hero brothers are working on the Krasny Mayak collective farm in Masalsk district, Kaluga region.

DMITRI AND YAKOV LUKANIN

FERAPONT GOLOVATY, A PEASANT PATRIOT

THE NAME OF Ferapont Golovaty came to be known all over the Soviet country in the winter of 1942 when the Battle of Stalingrad was at its height and the Soviet people were straining all their efforts to back the powerful drive of their armed forces. It was in December 1942 that collective-farmer bee-keeper Ferapont Petrovich Golovaty from the Volga area called on his countrymen to help Stalingrad's gallant defenders not only by unflagging effort, but with their savings as well. Golovaty himself started the ball rolling—he bought a fighter plane for 100,000 rubles and presented it to the air force, to be flown by a pilot from his own party—Major Boris Yeryomin, formerly a fitter in Saratov and now a Soviet ace. "For the Stalingrad front from collective farmer Ferapont Golovaty" the inscription on the fuselage read. Straight from the factory airfield where Golovaty turned over the plane to him, Yeryomin headed it for the Volga stronghold. Stalin heard of Ferapont Golovaty's patriotic act, and soon a message from Moscow reached the collective farmer's home:

"Thank you, Ferapont Petrovich, for your concern for the Red Army and its air force. The Red Army will not forget that you gave up all your savings to build a combat aircraft. Accept my regards. J. Stalin."

The news of the Saratov peasant's fine deed and the appreciation it earned him from Stalin stirred the whole nation. Thousands of messages went flying over the wires to Stalin, to tell him that other Soviet men and women were also contributing their savings to build planes, tanks or guns. Over 2,500,000,000 rubles flowed in within two months. The nation-wide movement to give extra help to the front was gaining momentum with every day.

The further story of Golovaty's plane deserves special mention. Major Yeryomin flew it all through the fighting from Stalingrad to Sevastopol—a period of 18 months—sending down seven German aircraft in this time. The plane came through intact, but could no longer be used on operations, on account of the wear and tear. It was sent to the Saratov museum, where it remains as a memorial of the war.

In April 1944, Golovaty bought a new plane. By strict economy and tireless work he had saved enough to pay for another fighter machine. A second letter of thanks came to him from the Kremlin. Presenting the second plane to the same Major Yeryomin, Golovaty charged him to rout the enemy and land it in Berlin. And the airman did his bidding faithfully. He downed another eight German planes, did his share in the Berlin air fighting, and landed on the Tempelhof aerodrome the day Germany surrendered.

Such is the story of collective farmer Golovaty's two planes.

Ferapont Golovaty's own life-story is interesting too. It is a good illustration of the Soviet peasant's political development and the growth of his civic consciousness.

Ferapont was born in the Ukraine. His father was a poor peasant, and at the age of eleven the boy was already work-

ing as a farm hand on the local landlord's estate. Later he went off to seek his fortune in the towns, trying trade after trade. When the first revolution broke out in Russia in 1905, Ferapont, then aged 15, was in Krasnodar with his brothers Ivan and Andrei. Andrei was killed during a workers' demonstration, and Ivan thrown into prison. Ferapont, as a juvenile, was marched back under escort to his native village. There he witnessed the bloody reprisals visited upon the rebelling peasants by the tsarist gendarmerie, and in his heart, as in that of other Russian peasants, hatred for the tsarist regime took firmer root than ever.

In 1910, the Golovaty family set off in search of tillable land, to the steppes stretching along the Volga. A large part of the steppes still lay vacant, land was plentiful, but here too the tiller could not make his effort pay. Right up to the 1917 Revolution, the Golovaty family could not climb out of want.

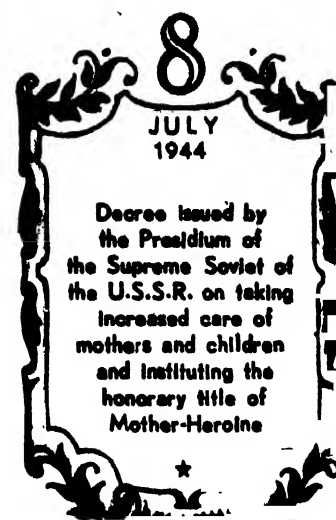
In World War I, Ferapont served with a mounted guards regiment; the guardsmen were picked for their height, and Golovaty was a veritable giant. Swift and sure with his sabre, he was terrifying indeed when the cavalry charged, and bold to the point of recklessness in night raids. His feats of valour won him three Crosses of St. George and two medals—the latter of these for a specially daring exploit: with only three others, he had captured eleven German cavalymen.

When the October Revolution began, the soldiers elected Golovaty to the regimental revolutionary committee. Later he became a fighter in the Red Guard, and afterwards in the regular Red Army. In 1918, he was already in command of a squadron defending the Volga town Tsaritsyn (now Stalingrad) against counter-revolutionaries.

Golovaty was among the initiators of the Russian peasantry's transition from individual to collective farming. It was obvious to him that, each on his own, the peasant could never conquer want by honest toil. And this was a truth that millions of husbandmen came to realize.

At the present time, Golovaty's fellow-villagers have elected him head of their collective-farm board, and the collective farm under his charge expands and prospers more and more with every year. Though it has less people now than before the war, it cultivates more land than it did. It has more horses now too, more cattle, more sheep and pigs. The collective farmers have built a brick kiln, and the village takes pride in its first brick buildings—the schoolhouse, club, mill and powerhouse.

Last year the membership worked out and approved a five-year plan for the development of their farm and community. All members are to have new houses, and of brick this time, not logs. Electricity will be widely introduced. A grand prospect opens before the collective farmers. And their fellow-villager Ferapont Golovaty is a prominent figure in the new Russia. He was elected to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. in the 1946 election, and sits on the Government Council on Collective Farms.



**MOTHER-HEROINE KULBABI TASTANBEKOVA OF THE KZIL-TU COLLECTIVE FARM,
ALMA-ATA REGION, KAZAKH S.S.R., HAS RAISED TEN CHILDREN**

MOTHER AND CHILD WELFARE IN THE U.S.S.R.

ON JULY 8, 1944, when the Great Patriotic War against the German invaders was at its height, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. issued a Decree on increasing the state aid to expectant mothers, mothers of large families, and unmarried mothers, on measures for improving mother and child welfare, on instituting the honorary title "Mother-Heroine," the Order "Glory of Motherhood," and the "Medal of Motherhood."

The care of children and mothers and the strengthening of the family have always been among the chief concerns of the Soviet government. Measures to safeguard the health of women and children are widely practised in the U.S.S.R.

The first government Decree on aid to mothers of large families was published in 1936. According to this Decree, a mother of six children, after the birth of the seventh and of each successive child was entitled to 2,000 rubles annually. By the new Decree of July 8, 1944, a mother upon the birth of a seventh and each successive child receives 2,500 rubles immediately after the child is born and 200 rubles per month for the next five years. The Decree further provides that mothers of two children receive a grant of 400 rubles upon the birth of a third child.

In the seven years from 1936 to 1943, the Soviet government paid out 7,000,000,000 rubles to mothers with many children and in the two-and-a-half years from July 8, 1944 to January 1, 1947, more than 6,000,000,000 rubles were paid to mothers of large families and unmarried mothers.

By the second anniversary of the Decree, the title of "Mother-Heroine" had been conferred upon 11,138 Soviet mothers, and 1,141,584 mothers had been awarded the Order "Glory of Motherhood" and the "Medal of Motherhood."

In 1946 the number of mothers receiving state aid amounted to 3,400,000 rubles and the sum that the government paid out exceeded 4,000,000,000 rubles.

A wide network of hospitals, sanatoriums, welfare centres and other medical organizations has been created in the Soviet Union to serve women and children.

Every expectant mother who is an employee is entitled to maternity leave with full pay. The aforesaid Decree increased the duration of the leave from 63 to 77 calendar days.

During pregnancy women are under the observation of the doctors of women's welfare centres or of special departments for children's welfare. The doctors advise them on the work they may do and the diet they should adhere to during pregnancy. At time of confinement the women get free medical attention in maternity homes or in maternity wards in hospitals. Today, these homes and wards have 93,000 beds and by the end of the fourth Five-Year Plan period the number is expected to reach 141,000. In sparsely inhabited localities women are helped during childbirth by travelling midwives whose duty it is to keep under observation all pregnant women in their respective districts and to accord them free medical help during childbirth at home. There are tens of thousands of such midwives in the country.

In accordance with Article 134 of the Code of Labour Laws, nursing mothers are entitled to a recess in their work for half an hour every three-and-a-half hours to feed their children. No deductions from the pay may be made for the time of recess. In big factories and mills there are special Mother and Child Rooms.

Qualified pediatricists watch over the health and development of children from birth until they reach the age of four years.

In the children's welfare centres, which are genuine "schools for mothers," the mother receives the most detailed advice on how to bring up her child.

The network of children's and women's welfare centres has been greatly enlarged since the publication of the Decree of July 8, 1944.

In order to make it possible for the women to combine the upbringing of children with their work, study or scientific activity, the Soviet government has set up an extensive network of crèches and kindergartens. About 800,000 children up to 4 years of age are being brought up in these institutions. Furthermore, in the summer months when work on the fields is in full swing, about 3,000,000 peasant children are cared for in seasonal crèches maintained by the collective farms.

By the end of the fourth Stalin Five-Year Plan period (1946-50) the number of places in crèches maintained by the government will reach 1,251,000 and the number of places in kindergartens will reach 2,280,000, i. e., a two-fold increase in comparison with 1940.

Soviet women have brought up their children in a spirit of supreme devotion to, and unbounded love for, their country. Their sons successfully defended the honour and independence of the Soviet Union in the Great Patriotic War.

Mother-Heroine Helen Rossoshanskaya, who lives in Moscow on Tverskoi Boulevard No. 7, Apartment 15, raised 12 children. Four of her sons participated in the Patriotic War. Two of them, Alexander and Leonid, returned home wearing red and yellow stripes which showed that they had shed blood in defence of their country. Alexei, an officer, remained in the army. The fourth, Vladimir, died a hero's death defending his country.

The entire responsibility of caring for the children who lost their parents during the Great Patriotic War has been shouldered by the state. Special children's homes have been organized for this purpose. Hewlett Johnson, Dean of Canterbury, who visited one of these homes in May 1945, wrote:

"With great pleasure have I visited this beautiful home for homeless children. It is a real home with particular love for particular children as well as a home grandly equipped in a scientific way for seeming physical fitness. I rejoice that children of a common soldier get precisely the same care as the children of a commander. My religion always taught me this should be done. Here it is done. As Dean of Canterbury this inspires me deeply."



NURSERY AT THE BOLSHOI IVANOVSKY TEXTILE MILL, IVANOV, R.S.F.S.R.



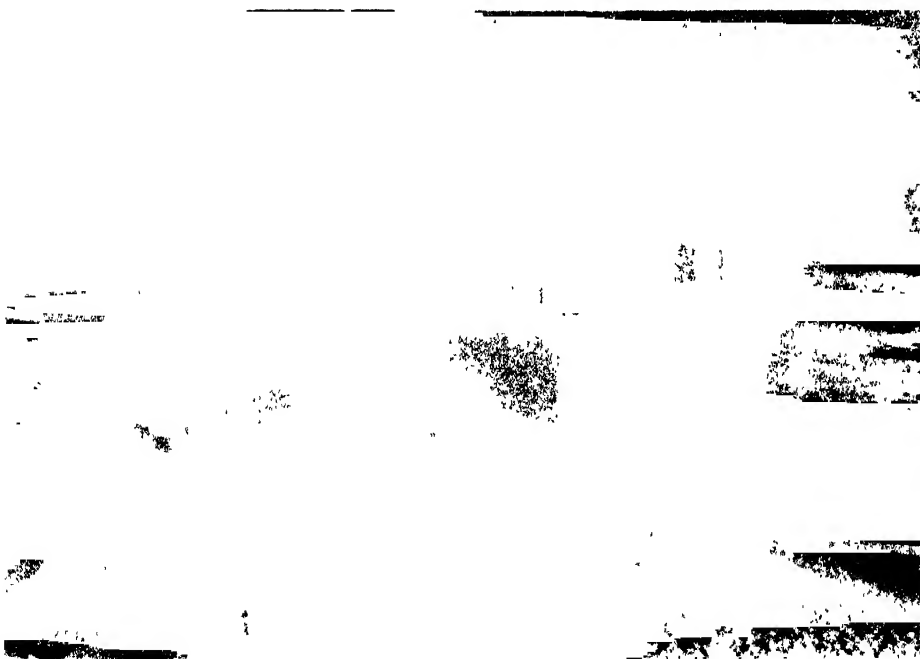
CHILDREN HAVING THEIR MORNING DIP IN THE BLACK SEA. ARTEK YOUNG PIONEER CAMP IN THE CRIMEA

Morning exercises at the
Artek Camp



Guards Major V. Mosaley chatting with pioneers about his war experiences 1946

RIVER BOATS PLYING THE MOSCOW CANAL



A DAM ON THE MOSCOW SEA



MOSCOW CANAL

THE MOSCOW-VOLGA CANAL which was opened ten years ago (July 15, 1937) is a fine example of hydraulic engineering that has great economic significance.

Before World War I, Moscow was already experiencing a shortage of water, the consumption per resident amounting to 60 litres per day. As the population increased the shortage became more and more acute, especially after the October Revolution when Moscow became the capital of the Soviet Union.

The Soviet government found additional sources of water supply for the capital, and by 1931 the water consumption was raised to 128 litres per resident per day. It appeared, however, that of the 57-60 million pails of water that flowed daily down the Moscow River, more than half went to the city's water supply system. This threatened to drain the Moscow River, and steps had to be taken to find ways of replenishing it.

Many plans were drawn up for this purpose and the government chose the one that solved two pressing problems: water supply for the capital and the further development of shipping in the Moscow River basin.

The plan proposed joining the Moscow River with the upper reaches of the Volga by means of a 128-kilometre canal. The canal had to be cut through the Dmitrov Hills in the Valdai Plateau. With this end in view the waters of the Volga had to be raised 38 metres up the northern slope of the range to form a junction with Khimka, a tributary of Moscow River, and from there to be carried down the southern slope of the range into the Moscow River. This was the shortest route between the Volga and the Moscow rivers.

The time periods set for the various constructions had to be rigidly adhered to, and the plan required good organization and mechanized labour. Thus, the construction of the canal was, as it were, a test for Soviet engineering as it had developed in the course of fulfilling the Five-Year Plans.

Large quantities of machinery were moved to the construction site. Special laboratories were set up and these conducted uninterrupted research work in hydraulic engineering, soil conditions and the type of concrete mixture to be used, thus maintaining a high standard of work. Three thousand helpful suggestions were made by the workers on the job and these also accelerated construction.

The huge quantity of building material used included 900,000 tons of cement, 170,000 tons of iron, 4,000,000 cubic metres of lumber and 110,000,000 bricks.

The work continued four years and eight months, and during this time 150,000,000 cubic metres of earth were excavated and 3,100,000 cubic metres of concrete were laid. The mighty dam that was built on the upper course of the Volga formed a huge reservoir which was given the name "Moscow Sea." A total of 6,700 farmsteads, including 40,000 buildings, were evacuated from the artificially inundated regions to a new site. The population concerned did not suffer any material loss during this operation.

Interesting technical problems were solved in the course of the construction. In one place, for instance, the canal met the Sestra River, whose bed is lower than that of the canal. The engineers canalized the river through a pipe under the canal bed. In another place, near Moscow, an interesting junction sprang up: an asphalt road runs through a tunnel cut under an embankment, on which is located one of the canal's locks big enough for the passage of the three-decker Volga steamers. The builders also successfully solved the problem of raising the Volga waters across the plateau; five powerful pumping stations keep the water moving uphill.

The canal is not only a water route leading to Moscow; it is a big complex of the most varied hydraulic engineering works. A 108-kilometre-long artificial channel was dug for the canal, while the waters of the rivers found along the construction route, raised by dams, were utilized for only 20 kilometres. Altogether there are three ferro-concrete and eight earth dams along the canal. One of these, the Volga Dam, is 216 metres wide and 29 metres high. The water pressure here reaches 18 metres. As much as 250,000 cubic metres of concrete were required to build this dam.

Seven hydroelectric power stations with a total power capacity of 70,000 kilowatts were built to provide electric power for the locks, dams and the waterworks which handle up to 50,000,000 pails of water daily.

Along the canal there are 240 landing stages, railway stations, electric sub-stations, reservoirs and so on.

Ships plying from the Volga to Moscow pass through 11 locks, some of which raise the vessels, and the others, lower them to the level of the Moscow River as they near the capital. The canal is almost 86 metres wide.

Its starting point is a port on the banks of the Volga River, and, leaving here, ships make a through trip to Moscow, tying up at the big Khimki Station.

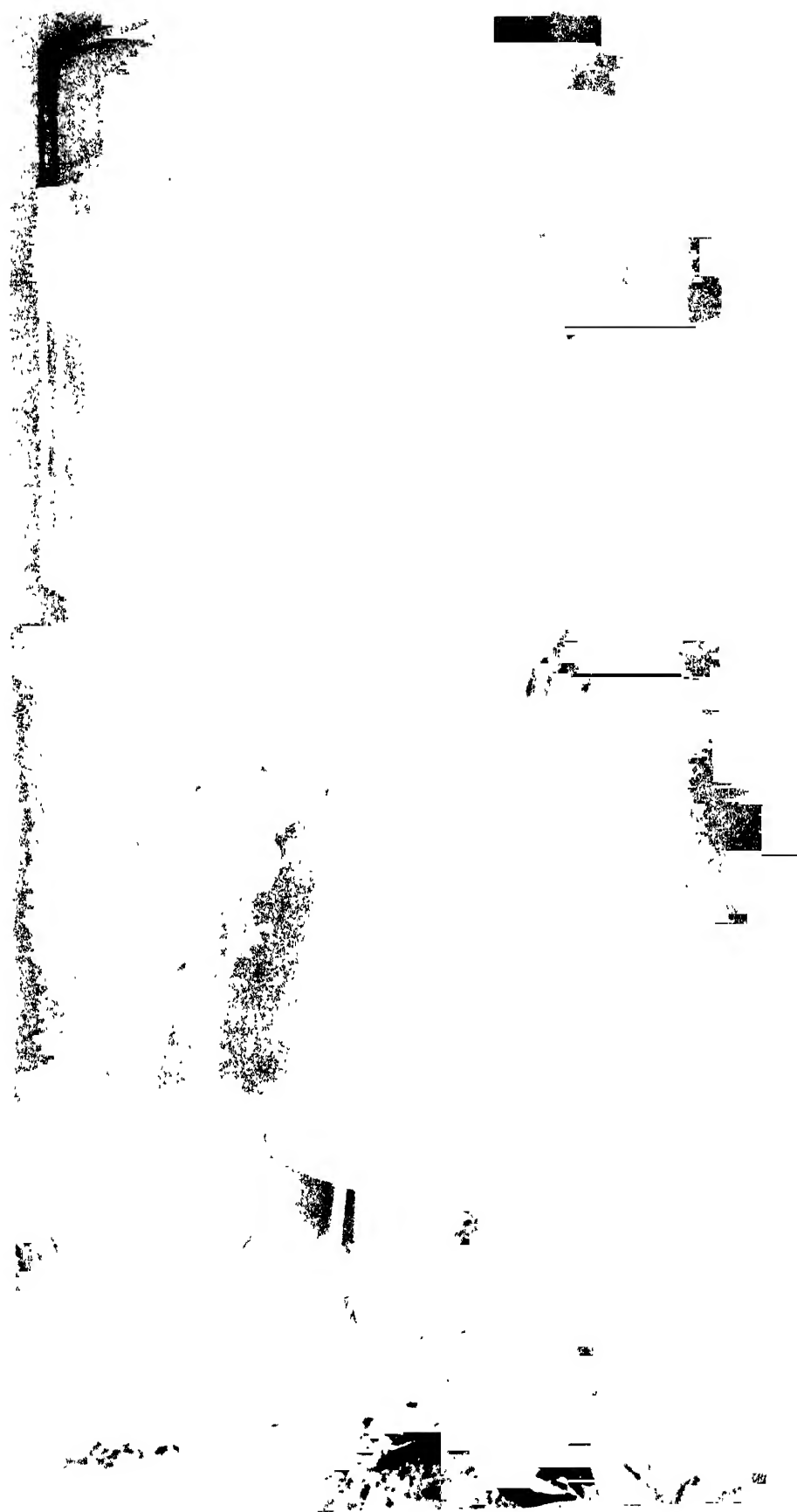
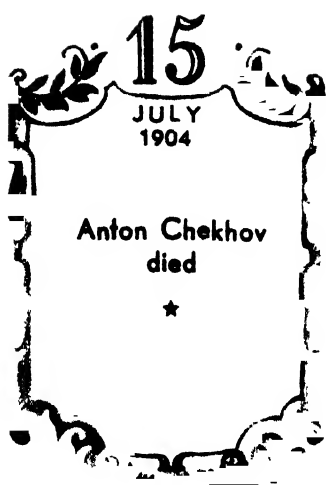
The canal and the engineering works belonging to it are beautiful, monumental structures. Soviet architects, sculptors and painters have worked jointly to this end.

The canal ensures Moscow, her population, her economy and industrial enterprises a constant and adequate supply of water. The journey from Moscow to Gorky has been shortened by 110 kilometres. Navigation on the canal became extremely active immediately after it was opened.

Ships carrying oil, grain, salt, fish, fruit and coal come to Moscow along this route, while Moscow exports via the canal the output of her metal-working and engineering industries, textiles and other goods.

The significance of the canal does not end here. Its construction is part of an extensive plan to link the Volga with the Don and thus convert Moscow into a port for five seas.

In honour of the 800th Anniversary of Moscow, the Moscow-Volga Canal has been renamed the Moscow Canal by decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. of September 6, 1947.



Yalta, 1900

ANTON CHEKHOV

ANTON CHEKHOV

(1860-1904)

ANTON PAVLOVICH CHEKHOV, Russia's famous writer, was born in Taganrog, in the family of a small shopkeeper.

Upon graduating from the Taganrog *gymnasium* in 1879, Chekhov entered the Medical Faculty of the Moscow University. Commenting on this in his autobiography, he wrote: "... I had but a faint idea of the various faculties at the time and cannot remember exactly why I chose the Medical Faculty, but I had no occasion to regret the choice. . . . My medical studies have undoubtedly had a serious influence on my literary career; they considerably widened my field of observation, and enriched me with knowledge, the true value of which, for me as a writer, only the man who is himself a doctor can understand; in addition they influenced my approach to life and people, and probably my knowledge of medicine helped me to avoid many mistakes."

After completing his studies at the university in 1884, Chekhov practised medicine for a number of years. There was a time when he could not make up his mind whether to devote his life to medicine or to literature. Literature, however, carried the day.

Anton Chekhov wrote for the press when he was still a student. He was an active contributor to the humorous journals which were popular at the time. From humorous stories sparkling with youthful mirth he gradually changed to serious short stories. His books were successful and his popularity spread. In 1887, the Academy of Sciences awarded him half the Pushkin Prize for his book of stories *In the Twilight*. Chekhov's plays, which the author described as lyric comedies—*The Seagull*, *Uncle Vanya*, *The Three Sisters*, *The Cherry Orchard*—won world fame for the Moscow Art Theatre which first produced them.

In 1890, the writer undertook a long journey to the Island of Sakhalin—then a penal settlement and place of exile—with the intention of writing a book about it. He made a special study of the copious literature dealing with Sakhalin, and spent several months on the island, personally conducting a census of its population, during which he card-indexed about 10,000 convicts and settlers. Chekhov's book, *Sakhalin Island*, created a profound impression on the Russian public.

In the 'nineties, Chekhov made several tours of Europe, visiting Vienna, Venice, Florence, Milan, Genoa, Nice, Rome, Paris and Biarritz.

In 1900, the Academy of Sciences elected Anton Chekhov its honorary member. Two years later, Chekhov renounced this title as a protest against the revocation, by order of the tsar, of Maxim Gorky's election to honorary membership of the Academy.

Chekhov suffered for many years from tuberculosis. In 1904, his health took a sharp turn for the worse. The doctors sent him to Schwarzwald. Here, at the Badenweiler resort, Chekhov died on the night of July 15, 1904. His body was removed to Moscow and buried in the Novodevichy Monastery Cemetery.

Even in his early humorous writings, Chekhov showed himself to be a passionate denouncer of banality and philis-

tinism. His works give a profound exposure of the seamy side of Russian life in the eighties and nineties of the 19th century. Triumphant vulgarity, the confusion and pessimism which reigned among the intelligentsia, the disintegration of the nobility, the rising bourgeoisie, the pauperized peasantry exploited by greedy kulaks—such were the main themes of the writer's stories. His *Ward No. 6* is a terrible summary of his observations on life in "the bureaucratic land of Russia." This is a tragic narrative about Russian people who, for daring to dream of a better and happier life, are confined to a lunatic asylum. This confinement place as depicted by Anton Chekhov came to symbolize the autocratic police state of Russia. And Maxim Gorky was profoundly right when, in one of his letters to Chekhov, he said that his short stories were accomplishing great things in "arousing people's disgust of this torpid half-dead life—the devil take it!" Commenting on Chekhov's works written in the last years of his life, Maxim Gorky said that each new story of Chekhov's "... stresses one profoundly valuable and vital note—the note of courage and love of life."

The writer's belief that the world could be changed for the better grew stronger with the passing years. Faith in man's creative genius and spiritual powers is clearly expressed by the author in the following words: "It is a common saying that all the land a man needs is three yards. But only a dead man needs three yards. A living man needs not three yards of land, and not a manor, but the entire earth, all of nature, where he can give full play to all the qualities and characteristics of his untrammelled spirit."

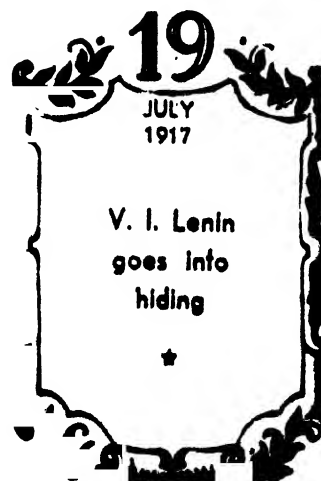
Out of his social optimism and faith in the power of reason, of progress and science was born Chekhov's deep conviction that his own "absurd and uncouth country would become a blossoming garden." True, he did not think this would come to pass so soon—"not before 200 or 300 years." Remote as he was from the revolutionary struggle, the writer could not anticipate that his native land would be transformed much sooner.

The most salient feature of Chekhov's works is the psychological short story, which he has raised to a high level of perfection. "Chekhov, the artist," said Leo Tolstoy, "cannot be compared to earlier Russian writers, such as Turgenev, Dostoyevsky, or myself. Chekhov has a style of his own, like the impressionists have theirs. It is like watching a person laying on colours seemingly in a haphazard manner, each stroke of the brush unrelated to the others. But when you step back and look at the result, the impression is astonishing. Before you is a vivid, fascinating picture."

Anton Chekhov's plays constitute a new epoch in dramaturgy. Like his stories, they are psychological and lyrical. Today they are still being performed by theatres throughout the Soviet Union, as well as by many theatres abroad.

Eminent artist and realist, and great innovator who laid new paths in the development of prose and dramaturgy, Anton Chekhov has exercised a tremendous influence both on Russian literature and on many Western, particularly American, writers.

V. I. LENIN IN RAZLIV



LENIN FORCED TO GO INTO HIDING

AFTER THE DEMONSTRATION in July 1917 was fired upon, Lenin, closely shadowed by counter-revolutionaries, was forced to go into hiding. During the first few days he took refuge in the modest apartment of the veteran Bolshevik, S. Y. Alliluyev, at No. 17a 10th Rozhdestvenskaya Street, Petrograd.

The Provisional Government offered a reward for Lenin's apprehension; and since spies shadowed all the prominent members of the Bolshevik Party who maintained contact with Lenin, there was a danger that they might discover his whereabouts. Consequently, on July 24, Lenin removed to a village near Sestroretsk. He was accompanied to the railway station in Petrograd by Comrades Stalin and Alliluyev.

"Before the third bell," relates Comrade Alliluyev, "Vladimir Ilyich came out onto the platform of the last car. The train moved out, and Comrade Stalin and I stood on the platform watching our beloved leader slowly vanishing into the distance."

Lenin took up residence at a place near Razliv Station

where there was a cottage with barn attached. The barn contained a hayloft access to which was had by means of a steep ladder. A table and chairs were hauled into the loft, and here Lenin took up his abode. But even this place was not safe. So Lenin decided to find a safer hiding place in the surrounding forest. Beyond the station, on the bank of a small lake, there was a secluded glade. The local inhabitants or holiday makers rarely passed this way. A few haymakers lived close by and disguised as one of these and provided with an identity card made out to "Konstantin Petrovich Ivanov," Lenin removed to this place. Friends hollowed out a hayrick, converting it into a kind of shack, and this served as Lenin's dwelling. Here he received newspapers and mail. Screened by a bush, and sitting at a fire over which a kettle was suspended, Lenin wrote his articles, which were duly dispatched to Petrograd. Sometimes, in the evening, the splash of oars was heard as representatives of the Central Committee of the Party rowed across the lake to visit Lenin.

LENIN IN RAZLIV

...STALIN instructed me to go and see Lenin to inform him about what was going on and to receive directives from him. I was given the address of a working man who lived not far from Sestroretsk (a station or two before it), and the password. In preparing for the journey I took great precautions to avoid being shadowed by detectives and thus divulging Lenin's whereabouts.

I arrived at the station at night. After wandering about a bit I found the house in which the workman lived. The man was not at home. His wife came to the door and I gave her the password. But unfortunately I had not been told what the countersign was, and this led to some confusion. The woman could not conceal the fact that she knew where Lenin was, but she emphatically refused to tell me. I tried to convince her that I could be trusted and that I had come on the instructions of the Central Committee, but she was adamant. I was in a most awkward position. I had to see Lenin, wanted to see him more than ever, yet I felt I was wrong in trying to persuade the comrade's wife to violate the rules of secrecy.

I was about to go away, when the woman called over her son, a lad of nine or ten, spoke to him a few words, and told me to follow him. We went to the lake, got into a boat, crossed to the other shore and then walked through the scrub. I concluded that Lenin lived in some country home in the neighbourhood and obediently followed my young guide. Suddenly he stopped near a hayrick and called somebody by name. I stood there bewildered. In answer to the boy's call a man came out. He turned out to be the boy's father; I greeted him and explained my mission. At last, I thought, there was someone who would take me to Lenin.

But just then a clean-shaven man appeared. He came up and greeted me. My answer was curt and dry. The man

tapped me on the shoulder and said: "Comrade Sergo, don't you recognize me?" It was Comrade Lenin. I shook hands with him heartily and we began to talk. After a few minutes Lenin invited me to have supper with him. A very meagre meal it turned out to be: rye bread and herring. That was all he had.

After "supper" we continued the conversation in Lenin's "apartment"—a hayrick, into which we crawled. It was warm, and the newly-mown hay was very fragrant. I told Lenin at length about the happenings in the city during his absence, about the temper of the workers and soldiers, about our organization, the Petrograd Soviet, the Menshevik Central Executive Committee, and so forth.

... Lenin gave me instructions on our future work and also advised that an underground nucleus of the Central Committee be formed forthwith to function alongside the legal Central Committee, and that an underground printing plant be established to say in secretly printed leaflets what we were not allowed to say in the legal press.

... Vladimir Ilyich listened to what I had to say and, after putting a few questions to me, he said:

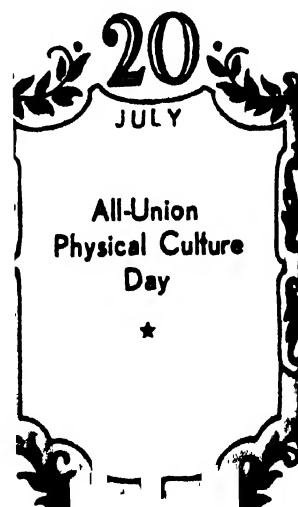
"... Power can be seized now by means of an armed insurrection. We shall not have to wait long. The insurrection will take place not later than September-October."

I listened with bated breath. The impression was overwhelming. We had only recently received a good thrashing, yet here he was forecasting a victorious insurrection within a month or two!

(From the reminiscences of G. K. Orjonikidze, a close associate of Lenin and prominent leader of the Bolshevik Party.)



PHYSICAL CULTURE PARADE AT THE DYNAMO STADIUM IN MOSCOW



PHYSICAL CULTURE AND SPORTS IN THE U.S.S.R.

PHYSICAL CULTURE is a matter of national importance in the Soviet Union. It is viewed not only as a means for the physical and military training of the youth, but also as one of the methods of educating the masses, a means for rallying the people and drawing them into social and political life.

The Lenin Young Communist League is the direct and active organizer of the physical-culture movement, the initiator of the largest mass sports events. Problems of athletic training, the provision of means for improvement in athletics and the establishment of new records are dealt with by this organization.

The physical-culture organizations have, in a considerable measure, aided in developing the physical and fighting qualities of the men of the Soviet Army. The best sportsmen, the champions and world record-holders were in the army during the Patriotic War.

Some of these athletes—Gleb Baklanov, Anatoli Ryzhkov, Nikolai Bocharov, Lazar Papernik, Alexei Maximov and Nikolai Kopylov—were awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

The Soviet physical-culture movement numbers millions of active members. Several million persons took part in the cross-country runs and ski-meets of 1945-46. The U.S.S.R. has a special complex of physical tests for the masses. It is known as the "Ready for Labour and Defence" test. All those who pass these tests are awarded badges.

More than 11,000,000 adults and more than 3,000,000 youths have passed the required tests since the introduction of this badge.

The government annually spends hundreds of millions of rubles on physical culture and sports. During the 20 years preceding the war, 600 stadiums, 14,000 athletic fields, 500 aquatic stations and many hundreds of enterprises manufacturing all sorts of sporting goods were established.

The physical-culture movement has acquired its greatest scope in the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic. There are 33,780 functioning physical-culture organizations on its territory. The towns and villages of the R.S.F.S.R. number some 934,000 skiers, 294,000 gymnasts, 432,000 track and field athletes and 69,000 football players.

The other republics of the U.S.S.R. are taking an ever greater part in the sporting life of the country. They cultivate nearly all forms of sport and develop their national sports—horsemanship, wrestling, etc.

School physical-culture organizations and children's athletic schools have extended their work since the end of the war. The young athletes have achieved good results, especially in skiing, track and field events. Important physical-culture work is carried on in industrial and factory schools.

The first post-war year was a successful one for Soviet physical culturists. The greatest number of new world records belongs to the weight-lifters, who hold 26 of the 35 world records; among these are—Grigori Novak, Georgi Popov, Nikolai Shatov, Yakov Kutsenko, Sergei Ambartsumian, Israel Mechanik, Alexander Bozhko, *et al.*

Other Soviet athletes who have set new records are Lyudmila Anokina, who threw the javelin 48 metres and 39 centimetres; Tatyana Sevryukova, who put the shot 14 metres and 89 centimetres, and Nina Dumbadze who threw the discus 49 metres and 88 centimetres. Leonid Meshkov set a new world breast-stroke record by swimming 100 metres in 1 minute and 5.1 seconds. Tatyana Karolina set two world skating records by covering 1,500 metres in 2 minutes 36.8 seconds and 5,000 metres in 9 minutes 16.4 seconds.

Soviet football players did well on the fields of Europe in games against first-class teams in Great Britain, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, Albania, Rumania and Finland. The Moscow football team "Dynamo" was particularly successful in winning the games played against the British teams "Arsenal" and "Cardiff City," and drawing with "Chelsea" and "Glasgow Rangers," whose teams were supplemented by players from other clubs. The Moscow "Dynamo" finished its games in Great Britain with a score of 19:9 in its favour.

The Moscow "Spartak" team played successfully in Albania, the team of the Central House of the Soviet Army—in Yugoslavia, the Tbilisi "Dynamo"—in Rumania, the "Torpedo" team—in Bulgaria, and the Leningrad "Zenith"—in Finland.

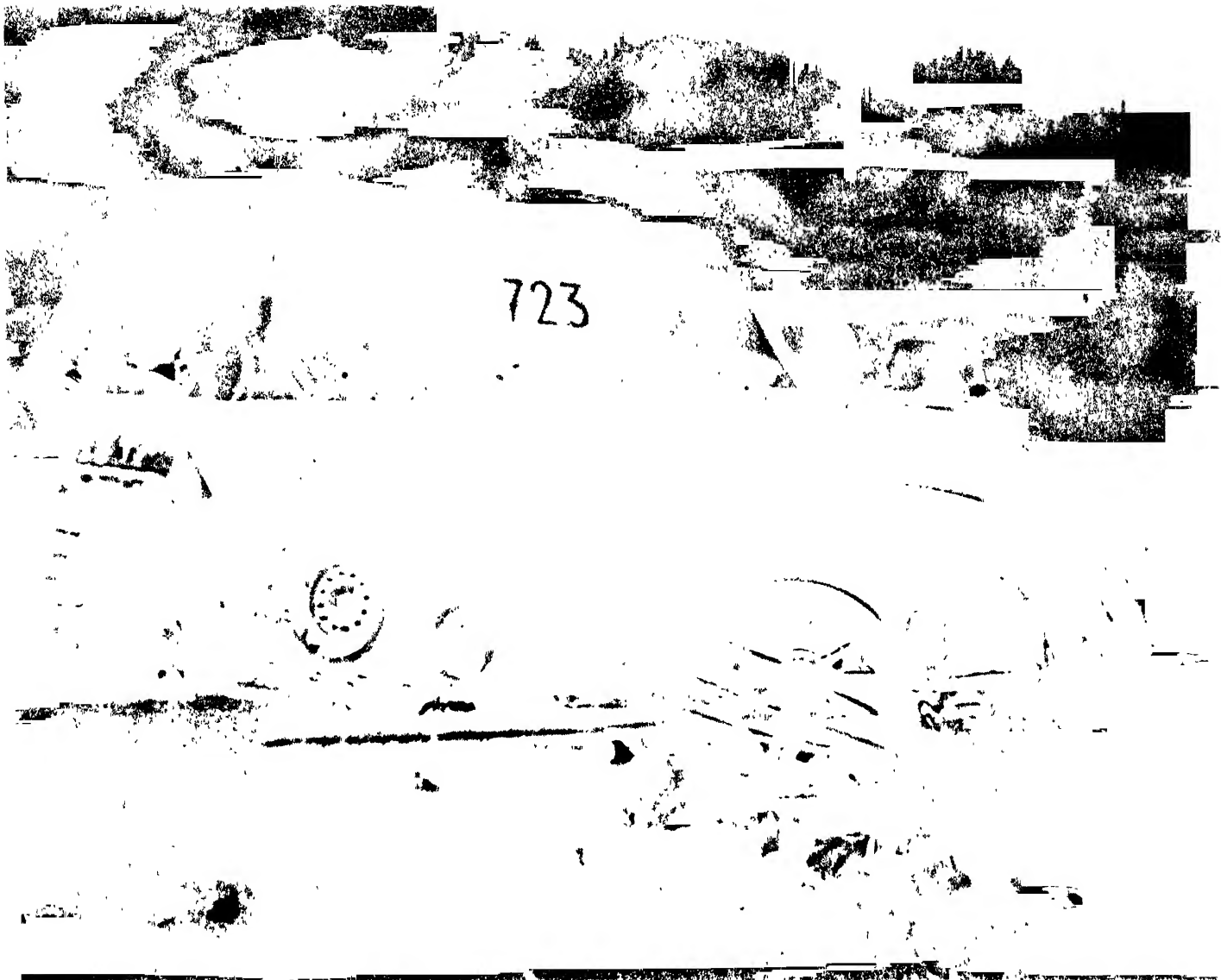
Of 22 international games Soviet football teams won 19 and drew three. These results show that Soviet footballers play a game as good as that of the world's best football teams.

Brilliant results were achieved by Soviet runners, who won the prize awarded by the newspaper *Humanité* in Paris, while the ice skaters beat the Norwegian varsity team containing some of the best skaters in the world. Soviet boxers won a brilliant victory in Finland, while the chess players beat the best American and British teams.

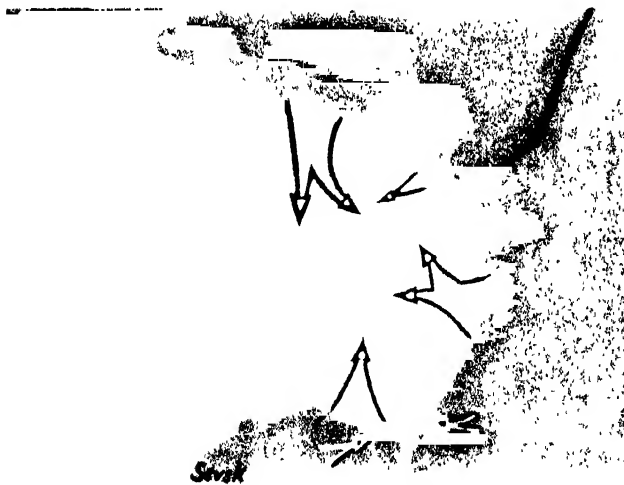
The performances of Soviet athletes abroad dispelled legends of the low level of Soviet sports. Contests between Soviet and foreign athletes have shown that Soviet athletes are worthy rivals to the world's best teams.

The All-Union Physical-Culture Day is an annual event in the Soviet Union. On this day, which has become a national holiday, Soviet physical culturists demonstrate their achievements and arrange parades and reviews.

Soviet physical culturists are striving to rally the masses of the people to sports, to attain high standards and to be ever ready for labour and for the defence of their country.



A FERDINAND TANK PUT OUT OF ACTION BY SOVIET TANKMEN. OREL-KURSK BATTLE, 1943



PLAN OF
OPERATIONS



THE BATTLE OF KURSK

ONE OF THE MOST sanguinary battles of the Great Patriotic War was that fought in the Orel-Kursk-Belgorod area in July and August of 1943. This battle culminated in the complete rout of large German forces that had been massed here for a 1943 summer offensive. Moreover, it was the beginning of a sweeping Soviet offensive which to a considerable degree predetermined the entire further course of the Great Patriotic War.

In the spring of 1943 the Hitlerite army was in difficult straits. The defeats at Stalingrad, Rostov and Voronezh had compelled it to withdraw from a vast area and to go over to the defensive. The Hitlerites counted on being able from that time on to conduct a protracted war, and they began to build defence lines and "walls," proclaiming to all the world that their new positions were impregnable.

These actions of the Germans were motivated by the fact that they had lost hopes of winning the war.

The prestige of the German command among the satellite countries had been severely shaken and the Hitlerites had to demonstrate at all cost that their army was capable of waging large-scale offensive operations; they hoped thereby to retard the disintegration of the fascist bloc. Another objective was to frighten their adversaries and delay the opening of a second front in Europe as long as possible.

To these ends the German command, after one more of those "total" mobilizations, opened the summer campaign of 1943 with an offensive in the Kursk area; the aim was to wipe out the Soviet troops operating there, and subsequently to attempt to push on to Moscow in a flanking manoeuvre from the southeast.

But the Supreme Command of the Soviet Army fathomed the plans of the German command. Supreme Commander-in-Chief Joseph Stalin countered them with a plan to smash the enemy's Orel and Belgorod army groups and to follow up with a Soviet offensive intended to drive the German invaders from the Ukraine and Byelorussia.

Large German tank and infantry forces supported by aircraft launched an offensive on July 5, 1943. From the Orel area the German command threw against Kursk seven tank divisions numbering up to 1,500 tanks, two motorized divisions and eleven infantry divisions. From the Belgorod area it hurled against Kursk ten tank divisions with 1,700 tanks, one motorized division and seven infantry divisions.

The offensive did not take the Soviet troops unawares. They had already built strong defences in depth, and thanks to the selfless labour of the Soviet rear were equipped with first-class armaments that could successfully combat the new German Tiger and Ferdinand tanks.

It was by no means accidental, then, that from the very start of their offensive the Germans sustained huge losses, yet achieved insignificant successes. In four days of sanguinary battles on the Orel-Kursk direction they advanced only six to

eight kilometres, and, losing 42,000 in killed, and 800 tanks, were forced to go over to the defensive. On July 13 they went over to the defensive on the Belgorod-Kursk direction as well, after having lost their main tank forces. The German offensive thus failed on its ninth day. The decimated German units hastily began to entrench themselves in an effort to hold the lines they had captured.

The attempt of the Hitlerite command to organize a new advance on Moscow, to take revenge for Stalingrad, and to change the course of the war failed disgracefully. During their offensive on Kursk the Germans lost 70,000 in killed and wounded, 2,952 tanks, 195 self-propelled guns, 1,392 aircraft and more than 5,000 motor vehicles.

The defensive action the Soviet troops so brilliantly waged at the Kursk salient was merely the first stage of a sweeping offensive planned by the Supreme Command. This offensive was launched on July 12 by troops of the Western and Bryansk fronts massed in the Orel area; they dealt a sudden, crushing blow while the enemy was still pushing on to Kursk. They wiped out the German forces operating on the Orel place d'armes and on August 5 captured the city of Orel. Here the Germans lost tens of thousands of men and officers, 1,500 tanks, and more than 3,000 guns and mortars.

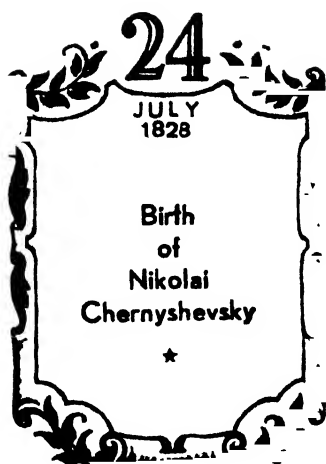
By July 23 the troops of the Voronezh Front had regained their positions lost at an earlier stage of the battle. Together with the forces of the Steppe Front they continued their successful offensive and a month later completed the liquidation of the enemy's Belgorod-Kharkov place d'armes. On August 23 they captured the city of Kharkov.

The Battle of Kursk put a final end to the mad plans of the Hitlerite command, which dreamed of a new campaign against Moscow. "If the Battle of Stalingrad presaged the decline of the German fascist army," Joseph Stalin said, "the Battle of Kursk brought it to the brink of disaster."

The brilliant victory at Kursk paved the way for the major Soviet offensive to liberate the Ukraine, a region upon which the Germans had placed in their war plans especially large hopes. They had counted on utilizing the agricultural produce of the Ukraine for their army and the people at home, and the coal of the Donetz basin for their factories and railways. But here, too, the enemy miscalculated. In a powerful offensive the Soviet Army liberated a considerable part of the Ukraine. The Germans lost not only the coal of the Donetz basin but also fertile grain regions.

The victories scored by the Soviet Army in 1943 substantially facilitated the successful development of operations by the British forces in the Mediterranean basin.

The Battle of Kursk was a new triumph for Soviet strategy and another brilliant manifestation of Stalin's genius as an army leader; it shattered all the plans of the Hitlerite command and led to the debacle of the German army.



"Not as conquerors and plunderers, like the Huns and the Mongols, do the Russians act in political history, but as saviours—saviours from the yoke of the Mongols which they held in check on their powerful neck, keeping it out of Europe and serving as a wall against it—a wall, true, which received all the shots, and which the enemies had half-managed to destroy; and saviours from another yoke—that of the French and Napoleon.... To contribute to the glory, not ephemeral but eternal, of one's country and to the good of humanity—what can be loftier and more desirable than this?"

(From N. G. Chernyshevsky's letter to A. N. Pypin, August 30, 1846)

NIKOLAI CHERNYSHEVSKY

(1828-1889)

NIKOLAI GAVRILOVICH CHERNYSHEVSKY, educator, critic and revolutionary, was the son of a priest. He was born in Saratov in 1828. After graduating a theological seminary in 1846, he enrolled in the University of St. Petersburg. Here he spent four years during a period which may be described as perhaps the worst in the reactionary reign of Nicholas I. It was then that his social and political views took shape—largely under the influence of the revolution of 1848 in Europe. He became a confirmed socialist, determined to devote himself to the cause of the emancipation of his people.

After his graduation from the university he worked for a few years as teacher in Saratov. But in 1853 he went back to St. Petersburg, where he soon joined the staff and later became editor of *Sovremennik* (*The Contemporary*), the most progressive magazine of those days.

Chernyshevsky's fondest aspiration in his early youth was to become the leader of a Left political party in Russia and educate the masses in a revolutionary spirit. But the prevailing conditions made practical revolutionary activity impossible. The only weapon he could wield at the time was the pen, and that too was restricted by the tsar's censorship. Chernyshevsky, however, managed with consummate skill to avoid the censorship obstacles. Lenin wrote in 1901 of the powerful influence of "Chernyshevsky who knew how to bring up real revolutionaries even by censored articles."

Chernyshevsky's first major work was his dissertation or *The Aesthetic Relationships between Art and Reality*. This subject may sound abstract, but Chernyshevsky's treatment lent it concrete interest and vitality. The young author gave a comprehensive and profound critical analysis of Hegel's idealistic aesthetics, revealing the inherent contradictions between its principles and conclusions. Chernyshevsky demolished the fundamentals of idealistic aesthetics which—from Plato to Kant and Hegel—rested on a religious interpretation of the idea of beauty, and laid the foundations of realistic aesthetics. At the same time, using the theory of art as an example, he brought out the general picture of the breakdown of the idealistic philosophy in the West. Like his predecessors, the great Russian thinkers Radishchev, Belinsky and Herzen, Chernyshevsky upheld the traditions of materialism in philosophy. Furthermore, he did not treat philosophy as something apart from the realities of political and social life. He saw and revealed the class nature of the philosophical systems of the German idealists in the early part of the 19th century. Lenin said of Chernyshevsky that "Chernyshevsky is the only, really great Russian writer from the 'fifties until 1888, who was able to keep on the level of an integral philosophical materialism and who spurned the wretched nonsense of Neo-Kantians, positivists, Machians and other muddleheads."

Chernyshevsky's next major work, *An Outline of the Good Period in Russian Literature* (1855)—a detailed analysis of the trends in Russian social thought in the twenties to forties of last century—was a history of criticism and social ideas in Russia as seen by a revolutionary democrat, and a forecast of the further literary development of Russia.

Chernyshevsky produced masterpieces of criticism with a revolutionary-political angle in his essays on Turgenev, Saltykov-Shchedrin, Lessing, and in his article *On Sincerity in Criticism*. His essays reveal an integrated system of views on art, a consistent attitude to literary phenomena and a profound knowledge of the laws of art.

Towards the end of the 'fifties, when the growing evidence of the revolutionary crisis forced the tsarist government to contemplate the abolition of serfdom, Chernyshevsky switched over from literary criticism to questions of politics, political economy, history and philosophy. In his articles on the peasant question he denounced the political and moral cowardice of the liberals, castigated the pusillanimity of the upper-class liberal intelligentsia and spoke of the imminence of a revolution. Chernyshevsky was convinced that the true emancipation of the peasants could only be achieved by revolutionary means. Lenin, referring to that period, wrote in his article *The Peasant Reform and the Proletarian and Peasant Revolution* (1911). "... there were even then revolutionaries in Russia who took the side of the peasants and saw the utter narrowness and inadequacy of the vaunted 'peasant reform,' its utterly feudal character. Chief among those—then extremely few—revolutionaries was N. G. Chernyshevsky."

It was also during those years that Chernyshevsky translated John Stuart Mill's *Principles of Political Economy*, supplying the translation with extensive comments in which he analyzed the inconsistencies of bourgeois political economy. Karl Marx praised this work highly. Around the same time Chernyshevsky wrote a brilliant essay, *The Anthropological Principle in Philosophy*, in which he set forth the fundamentals of materialism.

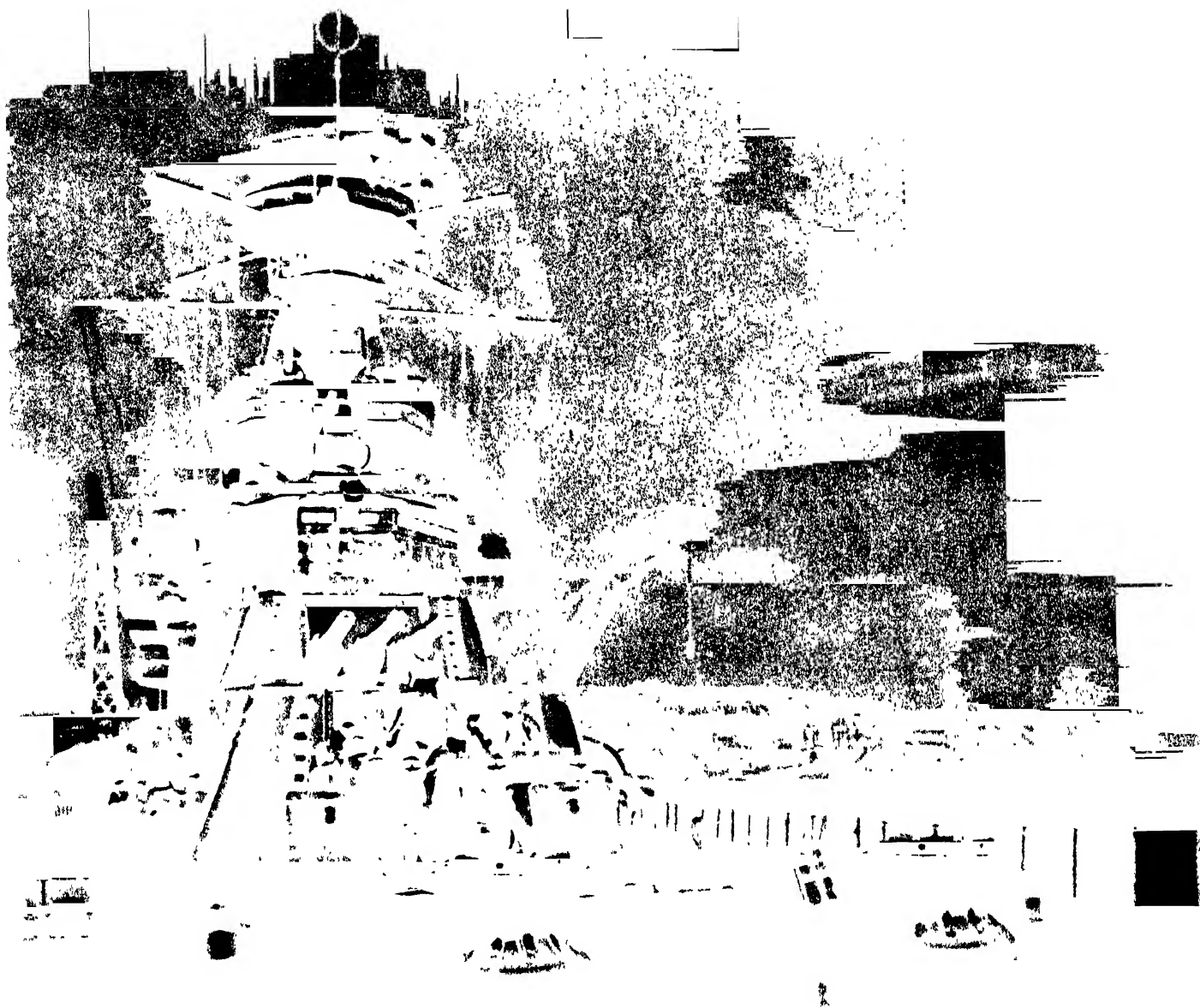
Chernyshevsky's influence rapidly grew and spread, particularly among the intellectual revolutionary-minded commoners. Each article of his was eagerly read and distributed in handwritten copies. Before long the authorities decided to cut short his activities, which, they realized, were highly dangerous to the tsarist regime. In the summer of 1862, Chernyshevsky was arrested and flung into a dungeon in the Fortress of Peter and Paul.

But Chernyshevsky was not a man who could be easily broken. He went on with his work even in prison. It was during his confinement in the fortress that he produced his major work; the novel *What Is to Be Done?* which profoundly influenced the Russian public. It was an attempt to answer the most urgent question of the day: What is to be done to free the country of despotism and exploitation. Many revolutionaries in the decades to come received their grounding in socialist ideas from this book. They drew from it their faith in the ultimate triumph of the revolution. Rakhmetov, one of the principal characters in the novel, became the model for many fighters in the ranks of the movement for freedom in Russia in the sixties of the 19th century. They sought to follow his example in their personal life, as well as in the fight for a new society.

After two years in the fortress, Chernyshevsky was sent to a penal camp, in Siberia, where he later lived as an exile, in the remote little town of Vilyuisk.

Conditions in Siberia were extremely hard. But Chernyshevsky, a gentle and shy man in private life, was endowed with a dauntless spirit which even his enemies could not help admiring. During his term of penal servitude and exile in Siberia, he wrote another novel, *The Prologue*, dealing with the political struggle that took place shortly before the "peasant reform" of 1861.

It was only in 1883 that Chernyshevsky was permitted to leave Siberia. He went to Astrakhan, where he lived for six years under police surveillance. In 1889 he returned to his native Saratov, where he died the same year.



THE CRUISER KLIM VOROSHILOV OF THE BLACK SEA FLEET



THE CREW OF THE
CRUISER KLIM
VOROSHILOV LINED
UP ON THE VESSEL'S
QUARTER DECK



NAVY DAY

NAVY DAY is one of the most popular national holidays in the Soviet Union. On that day the warships in Leningrad, Sevastopol, Vladivostok, Poliarny, Tallinn, Odessa and other seaport towns fire broadsides in honour of the battle traditions of the Navy and of the services it has rendered to the country. Mass naval games, swimming and diving, demonstrations of naval landings and public festivities attract huge throngs of spectators and participants all over the country. The Soviet people love their valiant Navy and hold its services to the country in high esteem. During the recent war the Soviet Navy won fresh distinction, contributing greatly to the victory over fascism.

The history of the Russian Navy contains many episodes in which its officers and men displayed unexampled courage.

The Russian Navy has been prominent since the time of Peter the Great. The traditions of the Russian sailors were established during the naval battles of Hangö Head, Chesma, Corfu and Navarino. For this reason Orders and Medals bearing the names of the great Russian admirals Nakhimov and Ushakov were instituted in Soviet Russia during the Patriotic War. In the engagements that took place during the Patriotic War, Soviet sailors added to the fame of their Navy and displayed great heroism in the service of the country.

The Soviet naval forces protected the strategic coastal flanks of the Soviet Army against the attacks and landings of the enemy navy. Not once in the course of the war was the enemy able to outflank the land forces on the seaboard or attack them from the sea. The Germans were unable to make a single naval landing in the rear of the Soviet Army.

The sailors of the Baltic, Black Sea, Northern and Pacific fleets and of the river flotillas co-ordinated their actions with those of the Soviet Army.

Nearly 300,000 sailors were decorated with Orders and Medals.

Over 508 sailors earned the high title of Hero of the Soviet Union; 87 ships and units were given the name of "Guards"; 202 ships and naval units were decorated with Orders for distinguished service.

In the historical Battle of Leningrad, in the battles of Odessa and Sevastopol, the Caucasus and the Crimea, in the heroic defence of the Soviet North, the sailors displayed exceptional courage, valour and heroism.

On a stormy December night in 1941 the Black Sea (now Guards) cruiser *Krasny Kavkaz*, commander Captain Alexei Gushchin, approached the coast of Feodosia with a big landing-party, guns and munitions on board. The fate of the entire operation depended on the landing of this party.

Enemy guns found the vessel and opened fire. One of the shells burst near a magazine containing tons of explosives. At any moment the magazine was likely to blow up and officers and men began hurling burning cases of shells overboard; but the cruiser continued mooring operations alongside the mole. Twenty shells and five mortar bombs hit the cruiser and eight fires were started, but she remained afloat and fit for battle.

Courage, skill and daring were displayed by the Soviet submarine crews. There are many submarines in the Soviet Navy whose conning towers are adorned with two-figure numbers which indicate the number of enemy ships sunk by the submarine during the recent war. Thus, Guards submarine *M-171* sank 16 enemy ships; the submarine of Hero of the Soviet Union Yaroslav Yosseliani—18; the Red Banner submarine *K-21*—17.

Soviet submarine crews are very popular with, and loved by, the people. The heroes of submarine warfare—the commander of a submarine squadron Mahomet Gajiev, Lieutenant Commander Israel Fisanovich and others are known to the whole country.

The crews of the torpedo motor boats displayed great valour during the war. In one battle Heroes of the Soviet Union Nikolai Osipov and Vladimir Gumanenko sank two enemy transports, a destroyer and a barge loaded with tanks. A group of motor boats commanded by Vladimir Alexeyev, Hero of the Soviet Union, came upon an enemy convoy of thirty vessels near the coast of Norway. As a result of a daring attack nine enemy ships were sunk.

The naval air force also earned fame during the war. Soviet naval aircraft have the honour of the first air-raids on Berlin—they were made by Baltic fliers from Oesel Island in 1941. The people will never forget the glorious exploits of the naval airmen Lieutenant Colonel Boris Safonov, Lieutenant Peter Brinko and others.

Soviet marines were outstanding in their courage and daring on all fronts of the Great Patriotic War. They were in the front ranks of the heroic defenders of Leningrad, Sevastopol, Odessa, Stalingrad and Moscow.

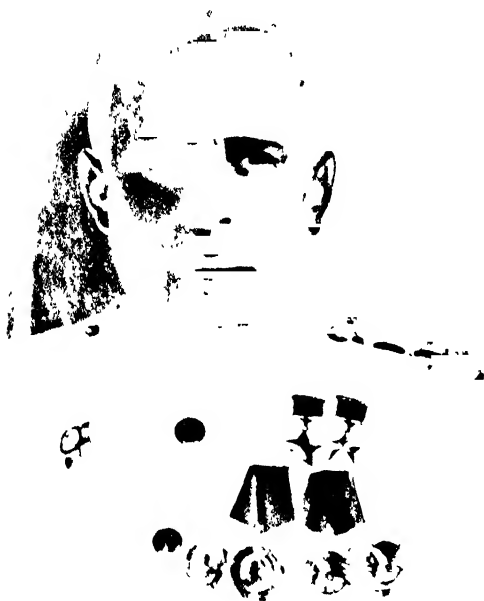
On Navy Day the attention of the people is drawn to the problem of the further rapid development of the Soviet Navy. "The Soviet people," says J. V. Stalin, "want to see their Navy still stronger and more powerful. Our people will construct for the Navy new warships and new bases."

The Soviet sailors, on this day, demonstrate their fighting readiness, their loyalty and fidelity to the country.

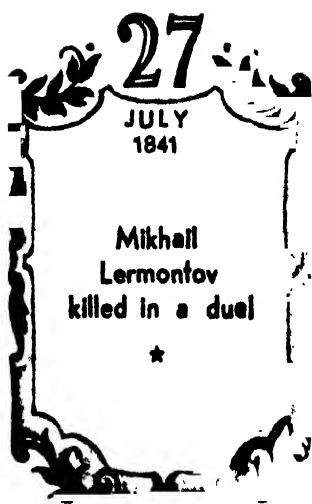
TWICE HERO OF THE SOVIET UNION ALEXANDER SHABALIN

DURING THE GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR Alexander Shabalin was placed in command of a detachment of torpedo cutters. The battle score of this detachment numbers twenty-five sunken enemy ships. For his fearless fighting and the enormous damage inflicted on the enemy, Alexander Shabalin was awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

In October 1944 Shabalin landed troops in a port occupied by the Germans in close proximity to Petsamo. For the skilful leadership, gallantry and heroism displayed in this extremely difficult operation, Shabalin was awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union for the second time.



Twice Hero of the Soviet Union A. Shabalin



M. Y. LERMONTOV IN THE PELISSE OF THE IMPERIAL HUSSAR GUARDS REGIMENT

Copy made by V. Perov from a portrait by Zabolotsky (in oil). 1870

MIKHAIL LERMONTOV

(1814-1841)

MIKHAIL YURIEVICH LERMONTOV was born in Moscow. His mother died when he was two years old, and he was brought up by his grandmother, on the Tarkhany estate in Penza gubernia. In 1828 Mikhail Lermontov entered the Moscow "University Boarding School for the Nobility" and in 1830 the University of Moscow. In 1832 the poet went to St. Petersburg where he enrolled in the Guards Cadet School. Upon graduation he was posted to a Regiment of Imperial Hussar Guards with the rank of cornet.

Mikhail Lermontov began to write verse when the country was in the firm grip of reaction following the ruthless suppression of the 1825 rebellion of the Decembrists against the autocracy. The poet's relatives had many close friends among the Decembrists. Ideals of political freedom and a deep respect for the national honour of the Russian people lived in the heart of Lermontov, a mere boy at the time.

Mikhail Lermontov who had early become acquainted with the masterpieces of world literature, was stirred by the life and works of Byron, the fiery poet who died for the freedom of the Greek people. He was fully aware, however, that their paths were divergent. "No, I am not a Byron," he wrote, "as yet a man of choice unknown, like he, I am by world disowned, a wanderer, but with a Russian soul."

The early writings of the poet were greatly influenced by Alexander Pushkin. The youth at first imitated the great poet and passed through all the stages of apprenticeship, but even during those years he revealed an inherent originality. He did not clothe his heroes in mythological garments, as was the contemporary literary practice; he endowed them with deeply human traits that were characteristic of the life and political atmosphere surrounding them. Vissarion Belinsky, the outstanding Russian critic and revolutionary-democrat, saw in the works of Lermontov "a sharply perceived presence of ideas expressed in an artistic form." His romanticism, he said, was not passive, elegiac and reactionary, but progressive, active and social. Spiritual force and deep emotion distinguished the works of the restless poet. His poem *Mtsiri*—a death-bed confession of a youthful lay-brother who is being stifled by monastery life—sounded, under the conditions prevailing at that time, like a clarion call for the freedom of the human personality, something the best people of that epoch so greatly longed for. Lermontov's poem *Demon* which portrayed the "king of knowledge and freedom" and "proud defiance of heavens," in the opinion of contemporaries, undermined the stagnant official world outlook. Lermontov's verse was a deep reflection of the times and it inspired progressive contemporaries to action.

His poem *On the Death of a Poet*, dedicated to Alexander Pushkin, stirred not only the progressive part of Russian society, but reactionaries as well. In this poem Lermontov

boldly pointed to the poet's assassins: "You, greedy crowd around the throne, are the hangmen of Freedom, Genius and Glory!" Many copies of this poem were circulated, one of them finding its way through a courtier into the hands of the tsar. Someone had obligingly added to it "Call to Revolution." The poet earned the irreconcilable enmity of the tsar and his court who made his life the uneasy existence of a permanently persecuted and disgraced officer. He was exiled to the Caucasus.

Lermontov's poetry of protest and accusation is imbued with sympathy for the West European revolutionary movement (cycle of verse dedicated to the 1830 July Revolution), sympathy for the struggle of the Caucasian peoples for independence, disapproval and contempt for the serf system ("Farewell, unwashed Russia, land of slaves, land of lords."); it is replete with reverberations of the Decembrist movement, bitterness and grief for the enforced idleness of his generation.

In 1840 Lermontov completed his novel *A Hero of Our Time*. The hero Pechorin is a tragically lonely man of the 1830's, who possesses "unbounded vitality," but is unable to find any application for it. In life he turns out to be a superfluous man. Pechorin, in the words of Lermontov "is a portrait built up of all our generation's vices in full bloom." The novel is a most valuable document portraying a historical stage in the development of Russian society.

Mikhail Lermontov was exceptionally skillful in creating characters. Boldly defying the accepted canons of poetry, he disregarded the distinctions between various genres, broke away from conventional poetical language, cast aside mythological characters, and introduced prosaic speech and conversational intonation into his poems. Enriching the rhythmic-potentialities of Russian verse, Lermontov improved its music and melody.

The poet's gloomy view of contemporary life did not diminish his love of his country, or his filial devotion to his people; this is especially vividly expressed in the poems *Motherland*, *Song About Tsar Ivan*, *the Young Oprichnik* and *the Audacious Merchant Kalashnikov* (in which, according to Belinsky, Lermontov "entered the realm of the national folklore as its complete master.") and the poem *Borodino* which revived with deep realism the fervour of the people's heroism in 1812.

Mikhail Lermontov died before he turned 27. He had been persecuted throughout his life by the tsar's government, and his death brought undisguised joy to Nicholas I. In July 1841, in the town of Pyatigorsk, the highly-gifted Russian poet met an untimely end—he was killed in a duel provoked by his enemies, the society circles.

AUGUST

- AUGUST 2, 1933** *The Stalin White Sea-Baltic Canal opened.*
- AUGUST 2, 1940** *Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic was formed.*
- AUGUST 2, 1945** *Berlin Conference of the Three Great Powers, U.S.S.R., U.S.A. and Great Britain, concluded.*
- AUGUST 3** *Railwaymen's Day.*
- AUGUST 3, 1940** *Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic admitted into the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.*
- AUGUST 5, 1940** *Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic admitted into the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.*
- AUGUST 6, 1940** *Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic admitted into the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.*
- AUGUST 8, 1947** *30th anniversary of the opening of the Sixth Congress of the Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party (Bolsheviks).*
- AUGUST 8, 1945** *The Soviet Government informed the Japanese Government that from August 9 the Soviet Union would consider herself in a state of war with Japan.*
- AUGUST 14, 1945** *Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between the Soviet Union and the Chinese Republic signed.*
- AUGUST 14, 1945** *Japan surrendered unconditionally.*
- AUGUST 17, 1934** *First All-Union Congress of Soviet Writers opened in Moscow.*
- AUGUST 17, 1946** *Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. conferred the Order of the Red Banner of Labour on Alexius, Patriarch of Moscow and of All the Russias, for outstanding services in organizing patriotic work during the Great Patriotic War.*
- AUGUST 18** *Aviation Day.*
- AUGUST 20, 1945** *Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. ratified the Charter of the United Nations Organization.*
- AUGUST 24, 1944** *Units of Soviet Army liberated Kishinev, capital of Moldavian S.S.R., from the German invaders.*
- AUGUST 26, 1920** *Kazakh Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic formed. In 1936 it became a Union Republic of the U.S.S.R.*



*The Arms
of the Moldavian Soviet Socialist
Republic*

MOLDAVIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE MOLDAVIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC occupies an area of 34,000 square kilometres in the south-west of the Soviet Union. It is bordered in the east and north by the Ukrainian S.S.R. and in the west by the Pruth River (a tributary of the Danube), beyond which lies Rumania. Geographically the republic is a plain with a warm climate well suited for agriculture. The capital is Kishinev, which had a population of 100,000 before the war.

The majority of the republic's population of 2,200,000 are Moldavians. There are also Russians, Ukrainians and Jews.

The region known as Bessarabia, which was part of Russia before World War I, constitutes the greater section of the Moldavian S.S.R. Rumania forcibly annexed Bessarabia in 1918, during the difficult period of the Civil War in Soviet Russia; she returned it in 1940 at the demand of the Soviet government. In accordance with the wishes of the working people of Bessarabia and the Moldavian Autonomous Republic—which was part of the Ukrainian S.S.R. and was situated east of the Dniester—the Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic was formed in 1940.

On the territory of the former Moldavian Autonomous Republic large modern factories and mills had been constructed under the Stalin Five-Year Plans, and flourishing collective and state farms had been built up.

In the parts of the present Moldavian S.S.R. which had been under Rumanian rule however, the situation was entirely different. The peasants, who comprised the majority of the population, were brought to the verge of destitution by the misrule of the Rumanian authorities and landowners. The industry consisted of small, primitive factories engaged in processing agricultural products.

Big prospects for speedy economic and cultural advancement were opened for the Moldavian people when they were unified and became part of the Soviet Union. Large-scale construction of industrial enterprises, schools, libraries, clinics and hospitals was started in the republic. The peasants of the regions returned by Rumania were freed from exploitation by landowners and were given land.

However, the incipient consolidation of the young Union Republic was cut short in 1941 by the perfidious attack of Hitlerite Germany against the U.S.S.R. The Moldavian S.S.R. was occupied by German and Rumanian fascist troops from 1941 to 1944. The invaders murdered thousands of the finest citizens of the Moldavian S.S.R., pillaged and almost totally destroyed her capital, Kishinev, the ancient Moldavian town of Orgeyev and many other towns, sacked and burned numerous villages and laid waste to almost a third of her orchards. They demolished all the machine and tractor stations, and wrecked the large Karagash irrigation system.

The victorious Soviet Army expelled the German and Rumanian invaders from the Moldavian S.S.R. in the autumn of 1944. The peoples of the U.S.S.R. came to the aid of the republic, which immediately launched upon rehabilitation.

More than 1,000 tractors, many agricultural machines and also a large amount of factory equipment were dispatched to the Moldavian S.S.R. The government gave the collective farmers livestock, farm implements and seed. Thanks to this help, already in 1946 more than 550 industrial enterprises were functioning and the cultivated area was brought to 98.5 per cent of the pre-war level.

The sum of 1,200,000,000 rubles is to be invested in the republic under the current Five-Year Plan (1946-50). In 1950 Moldavia's industrial output will be 78 per cent above the 1940 figure.

A machine-tool plant will be constructed in Kishinev, while mills manufacturing farm machinery and equipment for the food industry will be built in other towns. The chief industries of the republic, wine-making and food canning, will receive especial impetus. By 1950, Moldavia will produce 65,000,000 cans of preserved food as against 48,000,000 in 1940. Sugar output is to be doubled.

The end of the Five-Year Plan period will see the restoration of 26 wineries and the construction of four new ones; the annual wine output will be three million hectolitres. The vineyards of the Moldavian S.S.R. occupy 114,000 hectares, or about 30 per cent of the total in the U.S.S.R.

The building materials industry of the republic will be greatly extended. A works to be built in Rîbnitsa will produce 100,000 tons of cement annually. A big glass works will be constructed, and a plaster of Paris factory with an annual capacity of 10,000 tons is to go up in Kishinev.

The present Five-Year Plan will ensure speedy development of viticulture and horticulture. The annual fruit harvest is to be increased to 350,000 metric tons.

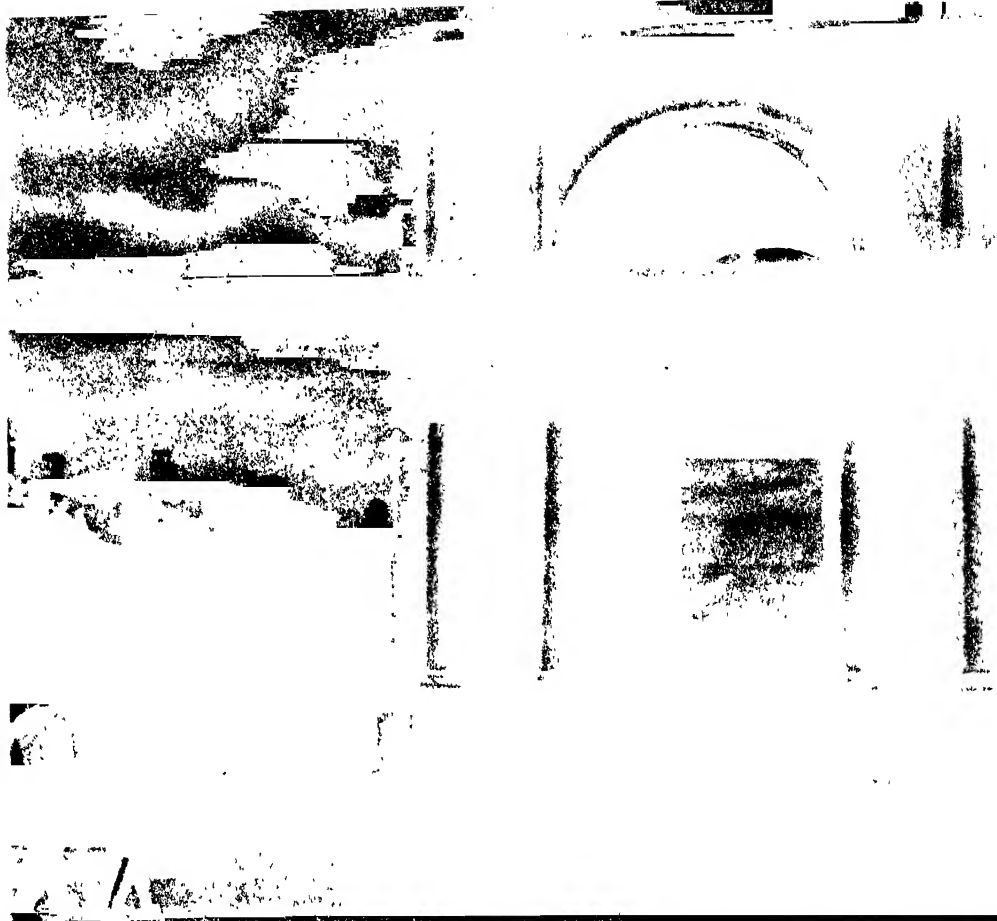
Great attention is being paid in the plan to the mechanization of Moldavian agriculture and to the introduction of the most modern farm methods. The area under industrial crops in 1950 will be greatly increased (under soya-bean alone fourfold) and the yields of grain crops are to be doubled. A large number of state farms will be established. The network of machine and tractor stations is to be enlarged.

As the Moldavian S.S.R. at present does not possess her own industrial fuel supplies, the Five-Year Plan provides for large-scale prospecting for coal and oil.

Under the plan the Dniester is to be made navigable, and a shipyard will be constructed along its banks. Moldavia's power supply will be augmented by a large hydroelectric station on the Dniester near Dubossary.

The town dwellings destroyed by the invaders are to be completely rehabilitated during the Five-Year Plan period.

The Moldavian State University, the first university in the history of the Moldavian people, was founded in Kishinev in 1946. Agricultural, medical and teachers colleges are being expanded under the Five-Year Plan. An opera and ballet theatre will be built in Kishinev. The Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. will greatly expand the activities of the branch it has established in the republic.



ARCH ON ALEXANDROVSKAYA
STREET IN KISHINEV,
CAPITAL OF THE
MOLDAVIAN S.S.R.

ARRIVAL OF THE POST. TABANY VILLAGE, BULTSOVSKY DISTRICT





HARVESTING GRAPES IN THE TIRASPOL DISTRICT



The first section of the Karagash irrigation system inaugurated. The powerful pumps drive up to 10,000,000 pails of water from the Dniester daily. 1946

Gathering in the harvest on a state farm. Grateshti, Kishenev region



THE REHABILITATED STALIN WHITE SEA-BALTIC CANAL OPENED TO NAVIGATION.
The *Veresayev* passing through a lock during the launching ceremony. July, 1946

THE STALIN WHITE SEA-BALTIC CANAL

ON JULY 28, 1946, after an interruption of five years, the White Sea-Baltic Canal was reopened to shipping.

The White Sea-Baltic Canal was constructed in August 1933. Starting from the port of Soroka (now Belomorsk) on the shores of the White Sea, it cuts through the forests of Karelia and flows into Lake Onega near the ancient town of Povenets, built in the time of Peter I. The canal links two seas—the White Sea and the Baltic Sea. The building of this canal greatly shortened the shipping lines; from Leningrad to Archangel by 2,170 nautical miles; from Leningrad to Spitsbergen by 920 miles; from Archangel to Hamburg by 406 miles.

The canal also provides direct transit for freight and passenger vessels plying between the White Sea and the Volga River (via the Mariinsk canal system).

The canal is of great economic significance. The vast natural resources of the Soviet North: Khibinsk apatite, Karelian lumber, stone for building purposes from the rich quarries of the Karelian-Finnish S.S.R., fish from the White Sea, and other goods, are now shipped south by cheap and convenient waterway, while cargoes of provisions and manufactured goods are transported to the North.

The canal builders made effective use of the abundant rivers and lakes of Karelia. A complete system of complicated hydro-technical constructions, including 19 locks, 15 dams, 12 flood-gates, 49 dikes and 33 subsidiary canals, form a direct water route over a total distance of 227 kilometres.

The canal involved the excavation of 21,000,000 cubic metres of earth and rock and the laying of 300,000 cubic metres of concrete besides the use of a huge quantity of timber.

In the summer of 1941, from the very first days of Hitler Germany's treacherous attack on the U.S.S.R., the region around the southern part of the canal became the scene of military operations. The Povenets region was invaded by German and Finnish troops in the fall of 1941. Here the enemy was stopped by the Soviet Army; the canal became a battle line. For three years the southern part of the canal, with its most complicated hydro-technical constructions, with the famous Povenets spillway comprising seven locks, was the scene of numerous battles.

The southern part of the Karelian-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic was liberated from the German-Finnish troops at the end of 1944. Engineers and builders who arrived on the heels of the Soviet advance lines were confronted by a frightful spectacle of destruction. The canal locks, dikes and other engineering works were piles of ruins. The beautiful city of Povenets was completely demolished.

The forests of Karelia once again became the scene of extensive construction work. Locks, dams and dikes were restored.

The reconstructors had to excavate and fill in one and a quarter million cubic metres of earth, lay out 11,000 cubic metres of concrete and make use of huge quantities of timber. Sixty thousand cubic metres of stone and gravel were used in the rebuilding of the dikes.

The people engaged in reconstruction did not confine themselves merely to restoring the canal to its former state. The experience of eight years' exploitation prior to the German invasion was utilized to the utmost extent by Soviet engineers and builders. They were able to improve many of the engineering works.

The most modern methods of construction were applied during restoration work. For example, the application of hydro-mechanization not only allowed for a reduction of time and cost, but provided for greater compactness in laying ground pavements, which is of such importance in hydro-technical pressure earth constructions. The new equipment for the canal was produced in the U.S.S.R.

The canal lost its entire fleet during the war. Measures were taken to provide the waterway with ships as soon as the canal was reopened for traffic. Over 200 vessels carrying tens of thousands of tons of cargo passed through the canal during the first month after its restoration. The canal fleet is being continuously augmented with new ships, including ice-breaking tugs, metal lighters, barges and other vessels.

The high quality of the work of the builders became evident in the course of the canal's exploitation. The engineering works splendidly withstood the pressure of the water. The lock machinery works efficiently.

Wide interest was displayed in the country at the restoration of the White Sea-Baltic Canal. The leader of the Soviet people, Joseph Stalin, congratulated the canal builders on the restoration of an exceedingly important waterway.

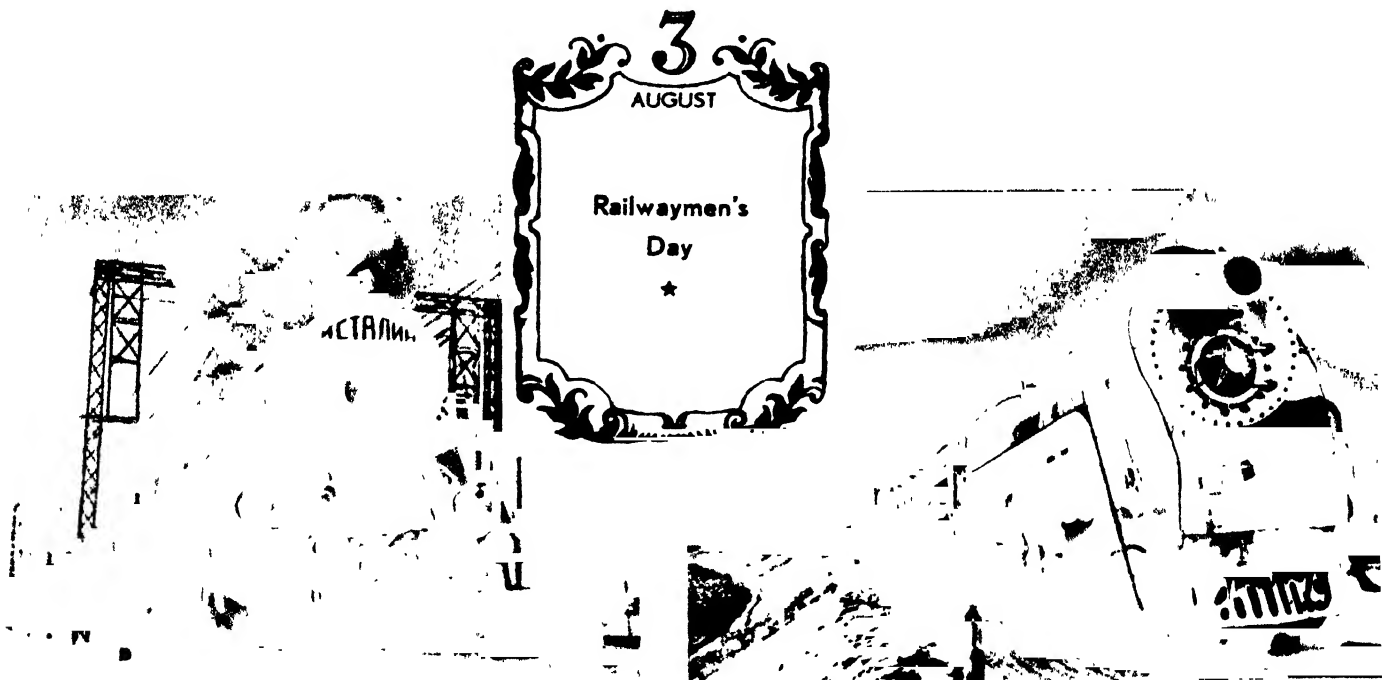
"The huge task that you have accomplished," Stalin pointed out in his telegram, "reopens a water route for the transportation of bulk cargoes between the White Sea, the Volga and the Baltic Sea, substantially reducing the load on the railways." Deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., Mark Gorbachev, in an address at the session of the Soviet of Nationalities of the U.S.S.R. on October 17, 1946, described the joy with which the people of the Karelian-Finnish Soviet Socialist Republic greeted the opening of the canal and Stalin's congratulatory telegram.

". . . The high appraisal given the self-sacrificing labour of the builders of the White Sea-Baltic Canal," Gorbachev said, "inspires the working people of the republic to new efforts for the further strengthening of the economic and military power of our multi-national Soviet state."





HEAVY FREIGHT TRAIN DRAWN BY A *FELIX DZERZHINSKY* (FD) LOCOMOTIVE



Passenger train drawn by a *Joseph Stalin* (JS) locomotive

The *Pobeda* locomotive. Built in 1946

RAILWAY TRANSPORT OF THE U.S.S.R.

SIMULTANEOUSLY with the nationalization of the land, banks and industry, the October Socialist Revolution also effected the nationalization of the railways, thus transforming them from an instrument of capitalist exploitation into a powerful weapon for the socialist reconstruction of the national economy of the country. During the years of Soviet power a total of 30,000 kilometres of railway lines was added to the railway network which represented an increase of almost fifty per cent. Many railway lines of vital importance for the national economy were constructed, such as the Siberia-Central Asia line, the Moscow-Donetz basin line, Ural-Kazakhstan line, the Caspian Sea-Ural line and many others. Double tracks were built on the main railways, and automatic blocking introduced. Approximately 2,000 kilometres of railway lines were electrified, and hundreds of new large stations and junctions built. Numerous locomotive and car-building plants with the most up-to-date equipment were built during this period. These new plants turned out 5,960 engines and 255,000 cars during the second Five-Year Plan period (1933-37). The daily car loadings rose from 28,000 in 1926-27 to 100,000 at the beginning of 1941, in other words, an almost fourfold increase. The total freightage of the railways rose from 65,700,000 ton-kilometres in 1913, to 415,000,000,000 in 1940.

World War II put the Soviet railway system to a serious test. Thousands of troop trains moved forward in the summer and autumn of 1941, while thousands of trainloads of equipment from evacuated factories and mills moved in the opposite direction. During a short period of time more than 1,300 industrial enterprises were bodily transported to the East from the western and southern regions of the U.S.S.R., involving the use of approximately a million and a half cars, carrying people and equipment.

When the Soviet Army began its victorious march westward from Stalingrad in the winter of 1942-43, the retreating Germans destroyed railway tracks, and bridges, and blew up and set fire to depots, stations and water towers. Railway workers followed on the heels of the Soviet Army's advance units, and while the war was still raging they restored in the territories liberated from the Germans more than 50,000 kilometres of railway tracks, and bridges totalling in length 185 kilometres.

The speed with which restoration work was carried out was amazing. The first Soviet ammunition train steamed into Vienna on April 10, 1945, while street-fighting was still in progress in the centre of the city. Soviet troops broke into Berlin on April 23, 1945, and on April 25, at 4 p. m., the first Soviet train rolled into one of Berlin's railway stations.

Neither was new construction work during the war suspended. The North-Pechora line, a 1,200-kilometre railway, was laid in the Soviet North across a vast forest region. A 1,000-kilometre railway was built along the right bank of the Volga during the war and it played an important part in the operations leading to the defeat of the Germans at Stalingrad. A 400-kilometre line was laid along the north-west coast of the Caspian Sea. A new White Sea railway

joined the ice-free port of Murmansk with the Moscow-Archangel trunk line.

Enormous damage was done to the Soviet railways by the German fascist invaders, who destroyed 65,000 kilometres of railway track, blew up 13,000 bridges, 317 locomotive depots, 1,600 water towers, 129 locomotive and car repair shops, dozens of railway engineering plants and 4,100 railway stations, and destroyed, damaged or moved out 15,800 steam and diesel locomotives and 428,000 cars.

The restoration and further development of the Soviet railway system is one of the principal tasks of the new Five-Year Plan (1946-50). Under the three previous Stalin Five-Year Plans, a total of 41,200,000,000 rubles was invested in railway construction, whereas now, under the first post-war Five-Year Plan, the railways are to receive 40,100,000,000 rubles, or almost one-sixth of the total investments into the national economy of the U.S.S.R. provided for by the new Five-Year Plan. These resources will be used not only to restore the technical equipment and carrying capacity of the railways to the 1940 level, but to surpass that level.

Between 1946 and 1950 the plan provides for the construction of 7,230 kilometres of new tracks, and for adding 12,500 kilometres of second tracks by restoring old and building new lines. One of the biggest undertakings during this period is the laying of the South-Siberian trunk line, 4,000 kilometres in length. New lines are also being laid in the Urals, in Kazakhstan and Siberia. A total of 5,325 kilometres of railway lines will be electrified, while 1,800 big and medium-sized bridges and 1,500 railway stations will undergo capital reconstruction. The total railway mileage by the end of the new Five-Year Plan period will be 123,000 kilometres, a figure considerably exceeding the 1940 mileage. The length of electrified lines will comprise 7,300 kilometres, and the U.S.S.R. will have the biggest mileage of electric railways in the world. During this period the railways will receive 7,585 new steam, electric and diesel locomotives, and 472,500 new freight cars (the total number of freight cars operating on the Russian railways in 1913 was 443,100). Daily car loadings will rise to 115,000, while freight shipments will increase from 415,000,000,000 ton-kilometres in 1940 to 532,000,000,000 in 1950.

Every day 14,000 freight and 6,500 passenger trains are made up on the railways. Three million men and women are employed on the Soviet railways and their work is followed with interest by all Soviet people. The title of Hero of Socialist Labour, the highest award in the U.S.S.R., was conferred on 129 railway workers in recognition of their services to the country. These heroes include engineers and engine drivers, railway superintendents and switch-tenders, dispatchers and couplers--representatives of almost every branch of the railway service. Many railway workers have been elected deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

The successes achieved in the restoration and development of the railways in the U.S.S.R. are the result of the selfless labour of the whole Soviet people. They are a graphic demonstration of the advantages of planned socialist economy.



Right: A train hauling coal. Karaganda, Kazakh S.S.R.



Left: A tank train carrying oil. Makhach-Kala, Daghestan A.S.S.R.



***The Arms
of the Lithuanian Soviet Socialist
Republic***

LITHUANIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE LITHUANIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC, the southernmost of the three Baltic republics, covers an area of 81,000 square kilometres and has a population of about 3,000,000.

The great majority of the republic's population are Lithuanians. There are also Russians, Jews and Poles.

The Lithuanian Soviet Republic was formed in December 1918, but the Soviet power soon fell under the blows of the bourgeois-landlord reaction and foreign interventionists. During the twenty years' rule of the reactionary bourgeois nationalists Lithuania was transformed into a semi-colony and became completely dependent upon the major capitalist states. The national economy was in a state of decline.

Lithuania's industries were very poorly developed. Petty enterprises of the homecraft type predominated. In 1939, out of 1,337 enterprises, only 120 employed more than 50 workers. Only 28,000 people, i.e., less than one per cent of the population, were engaged in industry. The working day was 12 hours, and wages did not cover the cost of living. The big industrial establishments in Lithuania were practically all owned by foreign capital. The principal power stations belonged to Belgian capitalists, the production of matches was entirely in the hands of Swedish capitalists, the cellulose industry was owned by a German concern.

The chief implement in Lithuania's backward agriculture was the primitive wooden plough. The peasants suffered from land shortage and poverty. Tens of thousands of people were reduced to unemployment and forced to emigrate. For example, 18,000 people emigrated to South America in 1927, and 15,000 in 1929.

On July 21, 1940, the National Diet of Lithuania, in compliance with the wishes of the electorate, proclaimed Lithuania a Soviet Socialist Republic. The Lithuanian S.S.R., at the request of the delegation of the Lithuanian people, was admitted into the Soviet Union by the Seventh Session of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

Subsequent events proved how right had been the choice of the freedom-loving Lithuanian people in following the Soviet path of development.

Unemployment disappeared during the very first months following the re-establishment of Soviet power in Lithuania. Industry started to grow rapidly. The land was proclaimed the property of the people. Surplus land appropriated from the big landowners was divided among the peasants who had insufficient or no land. Within a short period, conditions were created for the rapid expansion of agricultural production, notably of stock breeding. The cultural development of the country also proceeded at a fast pace. An Academy of Sciences of the Lithuanian S.S.R. was established on January 16, 1941.

The perfidious attack of Hitlerite Germany on the Soviet Union interrupted the development of the Lithuanian S.S.R. The German fascist invaders occupied Lithuania, and inflicted incalculable losses on her people, her towns and villages. During their occupation, the Germans shot over half a million of the Lithuanian population. They blew up and destroyed all the leading industrial enterprises of the republic, shipped off all the tractors and slaughtered more than half of the livestock. They destroyed more than a million square metres of housing accommodation in the capital of the republic, Vilnius, and completely razed the towns of Raseiniai and Shakai.

During the German occupation, Lithuania's best sons and daughters waged partisan warfare in the German rear or fought side by side with the soldiers of the Soviet Army against the German invaders. The Lithuanian Infantry Division carried its battle colours from the fields of Orel region to the shores of the Baltic Sea.

The victorious Soviet Army liberated Lithuania from the German invaders, and also freed the Lithuanian town and

port of Klaipeda (Memel) on the shores of the Baltic Sea, which the Germans had wrested from bourgeois Lithuania in 1939. This ancient Lithuanian territory was rejoined to Soviet Lithuania.

Immediately after her liberation from German occupation, the Lithuanian S.S.R., with the help of the other republics of the Soviet Union, set about the speedy restoration of her ruined national economy. Among the industries already restored and put into operation are a large cotton mill and a wool factory. The town and port of Klaipeda, which was destroyed by the Germans, has been almost completely rebuilt.

Soviet Lithuania's first Five-Year Plan (1946-50) offers wide prospects for the economic and cultural development of the Lithuanian people.

In the course of five years 1,535,000,000 rubles will be invested in the national economy of Lithuanian S.S.R. Industrial output by the year 1950 will be increased by 80 per cent over the pre-war level. The republic's electric power resources will be restored and enlarged, and stations with a power capacity of 83,000 kilowatts put in operation. The production of power in 1950 will be 190,000,000 kilowatt-hours, i.e., it will exceed the 1940 level 4.7 times. Fuel resources, based on rich local deposits of peat, will also be developed. The output of peat in 1950 will reach 822,000 tons, which is a threefold increase over the pre-war output.

The new Stalin Five-Year Plan aims at industrializing Lithuania, which, under the bourgeois government, had had no appreciable metal-working industry of its own. A machine-tools plant and an agricultural machinery factory will be built in the course of the new Five-Year Plan period; and new manufactures, such as electric motors, steam-boilers, radiators, lathes, sulphuric acid, superphosphate, etc., will be organized.

The output of the light industry as well will be considerably increased, and will include the production of woollens, linen and silk fabrics, knitted goods, leather and rubber footwear.

In agriculture, the Five-Year Plan provides for the complete restoration of the pre-war acreage under grain cultivation and a considerable expansion of the acreage under industrial crops, especially flax, sugar beet and herbs. Livestock breeding, especially hogs, poultry and dairy farming, will be considerably developed. Lithuania will use imported mineral fertilizers for the immediate raising of her crop yield, but beginning with 1948, the country will receive its own supplies of mineral fertilizers from the superphosphate factory now in the process of reconstruction. The farmers will receive help in the form of machines and loans.

Big town-planning schemes and house building will be launched in the towns of Vilnius, Kaunas, Klaipeda, Shauliai, Ponevezhes and others, destroyed by the Germans.

Wide prospects are opening for the Lithuanian people in the field of cultural development. In 1950, Soviet Lithuania will have 3,369 schools with 390,000 pupils. The number of students in the universities and other higher schools of learning will increase 3.5 times. The activities of the restored Academy of Sciences of the Lithuanian S.S.R., and of the Vilnius University, one of the oldest universities in Europe, will be extended, as will the activities of other cultural institutions of the republic. The arts of the Lithuanian people will also receive further development; the number of theatres will be increased; today there are already eleven instead of the four which existed in bourgeois Lithuania; the cinema network will be increased fourfold as compared with 1940. Medical services will be greatly improved, and the number of hospital beds will reach 9,000 as against the 7,300 that existed in 1940.

The new Five-Year Plan will bring Soviet Lithuania out onto the high road of rapid economic development, ensuring the Lithuanian people a rise of material well-being and the further progress of their culture.



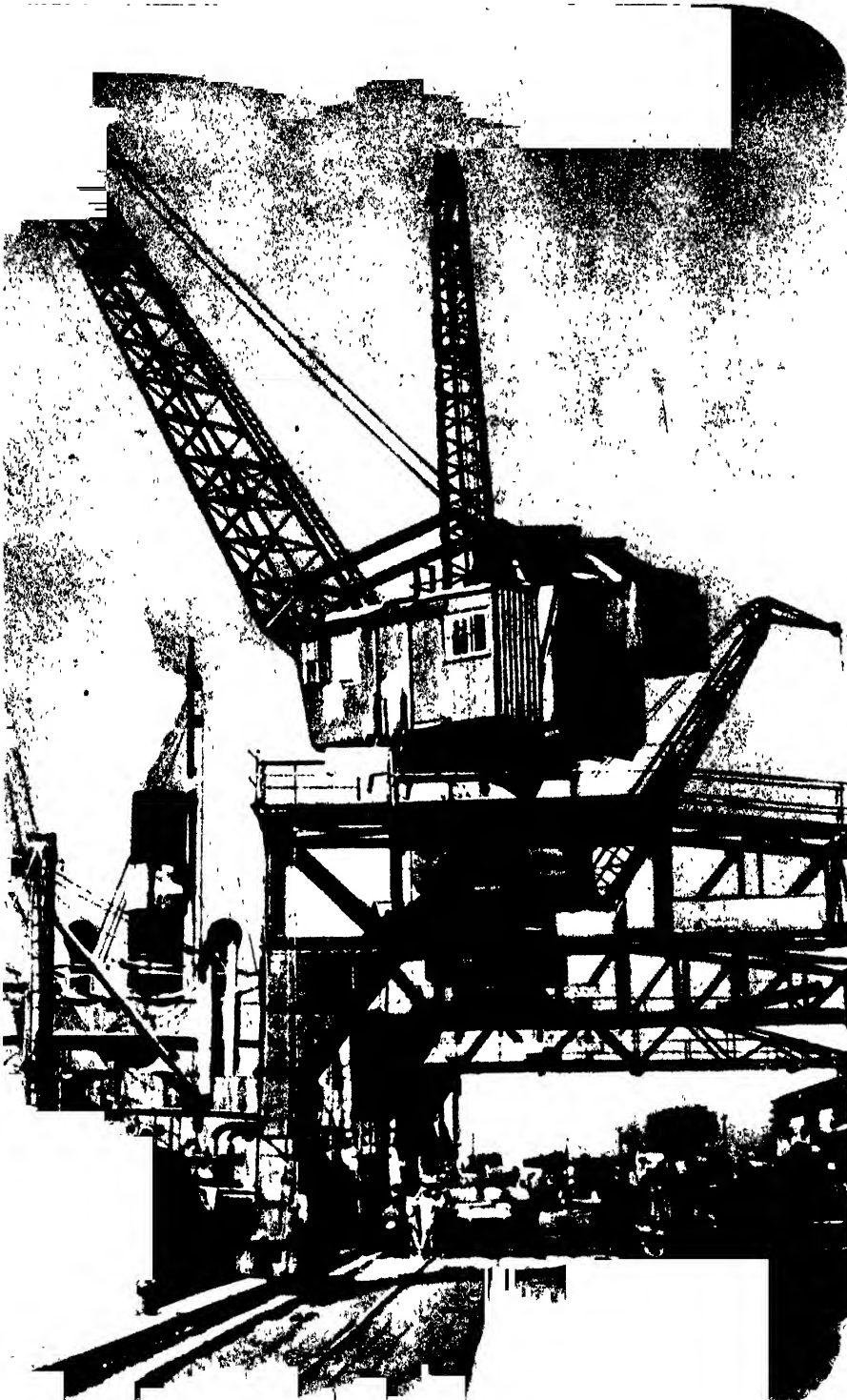
VILNIUS, CAPITAL OF THE LITHUANIAN S



The Gedemine Tower in Vilnius



Helen Krasauskaete, student of the Vilnius
State Conservatory playing folk music on
an ancient Lithuanian instrument



THE RESTORED PORT OF KLAIPEDA



MAWAB SALAF HING BAKA, 1955

***The Arms
of the Latvian Soviet Socialist
Republic***

LATVIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE LATVIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC occupies part of the Soviet Baltic littoral, along the Gulf of Riga. Its area is 65,800 square kilometres, its population 1,970,000. Of these 59 per cent are Letts, 16 per cent Latvians, and the rest Russians, Jews, Poles, Byelorussians and Lithuanians.

Before the October Revolution, Latvia was economically one of the most developed regions of Russia. It possessed a powerful metal-working, shipbuilding and chemical industry. One-fourth of Russia's exports passed through its ports.

In 1919, bourgeois nationalists aided by German imperialists wrested Latvia away from the young Soviet Republic and foisted a reactionary, anti-democratic regime on the freedom-loving Latvian people.

The hand of the reactionary clique weighed heavily upon the economy of the country. Industrial production figures showed a severe decline. Numerous establishments barely managed to keep their heads above water; others went under or shut their doors. The grounds of the immense Provodnik Plant, which at one time had employed over 14,000 workers, became overgrown with thistles. Factories and mills broke up into small workshops for lack of business. Idle vessels choked the ports and urban population dwindled as hosts of unemployed went to the villages to work as farmhands for the kulaks. In 1935, Riga had only 358,000 inhabitants left to the 530,000 in 1914. Latvia was transformed into an agricultural country. An agrarian appendage to Germany and England, it fell into complete economic dependence upon the major capitalist states.

In 1940, as the result of a victorious uprising of the working people, the bourgeois-landlord regime was overthrown and Latvia proclaimed a Soviet Republic.

The way was now clear for the advancement of Socialist Latvia's economy and culture. The republic's industry made rapid strides. Over 73,000 who owned little land or none at all were given allotments from the surplus holdings of the big landowners. The Soviet government provided tens of thousands of peasant farms with agricultural implements, cattle and farm buildings, and set up a wide network of machine and tractor stations and livery stables.

However, this regeneration of the Latvian people lasted only about one year. In 1941, during the first weeks of Hitler Germany's perfidious attack on the U.S.S.R., the Latvian S.S.R. was occupied by the fascist troops. Deep were the wounds inflicted by the invaders. Tens of thousands of Latvian patriots were placed before execution squads or done to death in the Nazi concentration camps. The Nazi ravagers dynamited the heart of Latvian industry, the Kegum Hydroelectric Power Station and 52 other power plants. All that was left of the port of Riga was ruins; the other ports were laid waste, too. The Germans put out of commission 5,790 industrial units, blasted numerous bridges and wrecked about 140,000 structures of various descriptions. They did immense damage to the country's agriculture, slaughtering, driving off or exterminating over 800,000 head of cattle, a million hogs and sheep and more than 100,000 horses.

The Latvian people answered these Nazi atrocities by ruthless partisan warfare. At the same time, the Soviet Army included in its ranks Latvian regiments and whole divisions, who fought bravely against the common foe.

After the Latvian Republic's territory had been cleared of the German invader, the Latvian people undertook forthwith rehabilitation work. In 1946, 1,300 factories and mills had already been restored and restarted. The rehabilitated Kegum Power Station was producing electricity. The ports

again came to life. Vast operations were carried on to restore the devastated cities.

The fourth Stalin Five-Year Plan is really the first for the Latvian S.S.R. Its realization will bring a radical change into Latvia's economy. The republic will be transformed from an agrarian into an industrial-agrarian country.

Under the new Five-Year Plan, which runs for the period of 1946-50, 2,050,000,000 rubles will be invested in Latvia's national economy.

The comprehensive development of the republic's electric power system constitutes one of the primary tasks to be accomplished under the new Five-Year Plan. In 1950, the total output of electric energy will reach 275,000,000 kwh, a total which will completely satisfy the rapidly-growing industry of the republic.

By the end of the Five-Year Plan period, peat production in the republic will amount to 564,000 tons a year, more than three times as much as the pre-war output. Cement production will rise 107.2 per cent, that of brick 129.4 per cent, of pitched paper 191.3 per cent. The production of electrical apparatus and supplies will be greatly increased. In 1950, the State Electro-Technical Factory alone will manufacture 100,000 telephones, equipment for telephone exchanges serving 105,000 subscribers, for 80 dispatch stations and 11 inter-urban stations, and 40,000 radio sets.

In 1950, the Riga Hydro-Turbine Plant will produce 100 hydro-turbines, the bicycle factory 75,000 bicycles, the Radio-Technical Plant 40,000 radios. In Daugavpils a new modern locomotive repair shop is being built in place of the old plant, which had been destroyed by the Germans. The Riga shipyards will be enlarged, provided with new docks and converted into a large repair base for the fleet. Riga, Lepai and Ventspils will be provided with modern port installations.

The Five-Year Plan contemplates the laying of second tracks for the trunk line Moscow-Riga, a length of 406 kilometres, and the restoration of a number of local railways. A large first-class airport is to be built in Riga.

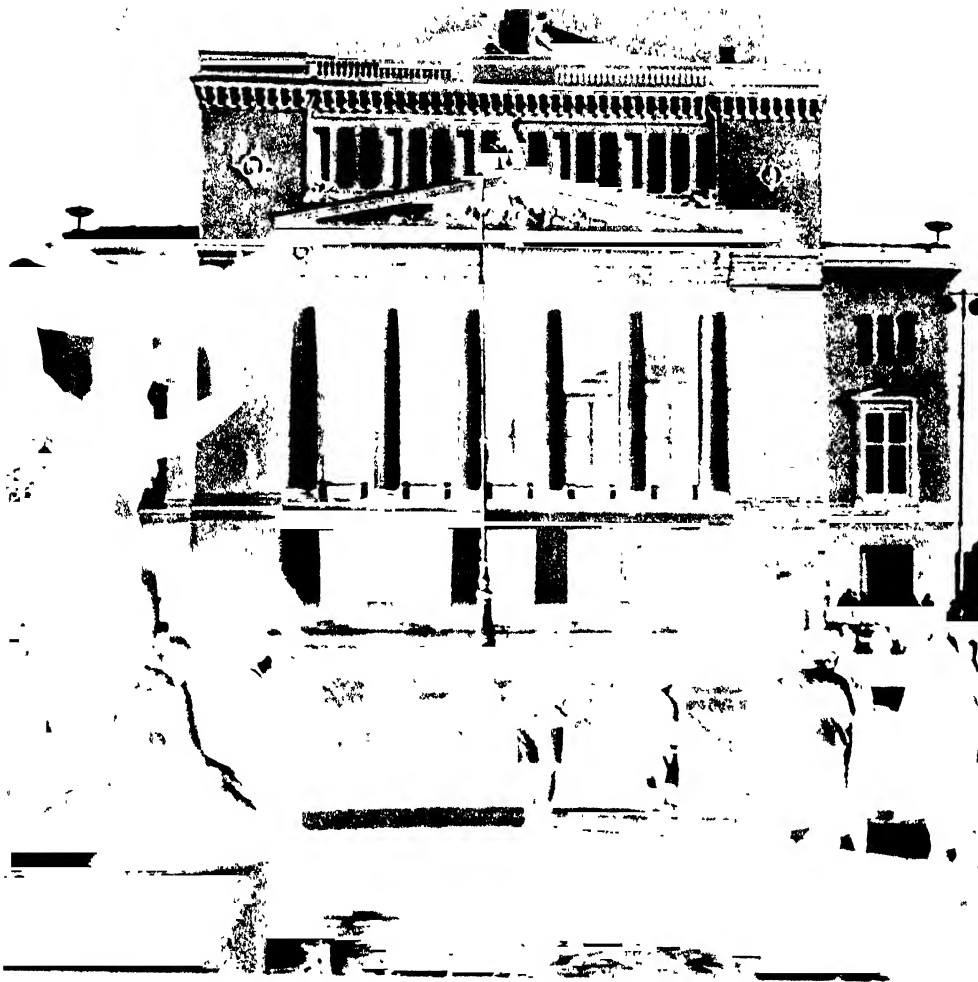
During the five-year period light and food industry will undergo considerable expansion. The manufacture of shoes will be trebled compared with 1940 and the production of woollen and cotton fabrics will increase more than 50 per cent. The new Jelgava Linen Mill alone will put out 12,000,000 metres of linen fabric a year, twice as much as all Latvia produced before the war. There will be a trebling in 1950 of the production of meat and meat products and a quintupling of butter output compared with 1945.

In 1950, farm produce will reach the pre-war level, and in some items will exceed it. During the five-year period 120,000,000 rubles will be invested in the republic's agriculture, primarily for the procurement of modern machinery. Dairy cattle breeding will make great strides. In 1950, the republic will have 1,140,000 head of cattle, 620,000 sheep and goats, 600,000 hogs and 405,000 horses. During this period 720,000 square metres of housing space will be restored or built in Riga, the capital of the republic, and in the towns of Liepaja, Ventspils, Jelgava, Daugavpils, Rezekne and others. The capital will also receive a handsome stadium seating 30,000.

There will be over 1,500 schools with an attendance of 275,000. New theatres, cinemas, libraries, clubs and parks will be built and Riga University enlarged.

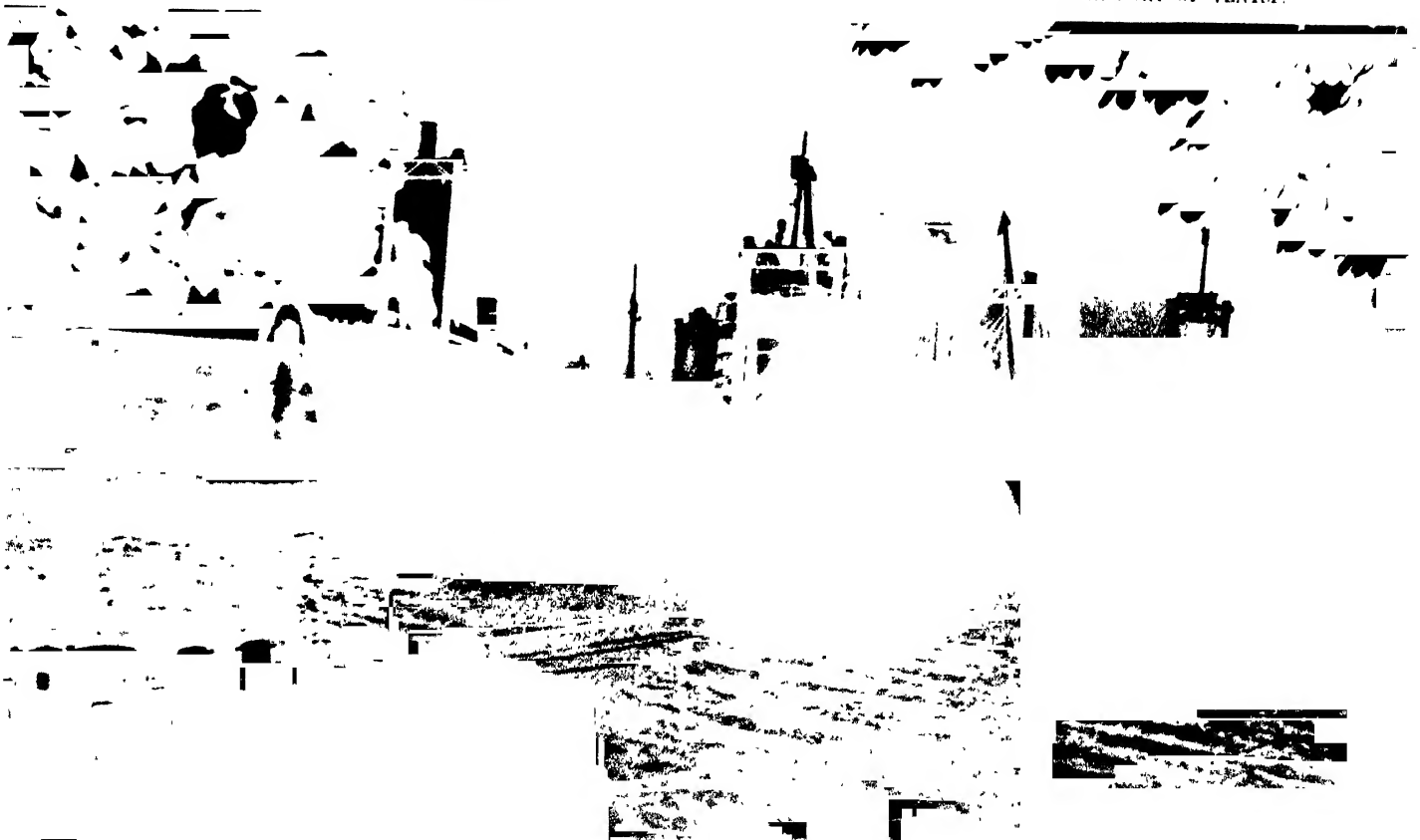
The Latvian Academy of Sciences founded in 1946 will widen the scope of its work and become the scientific centre of the republic.

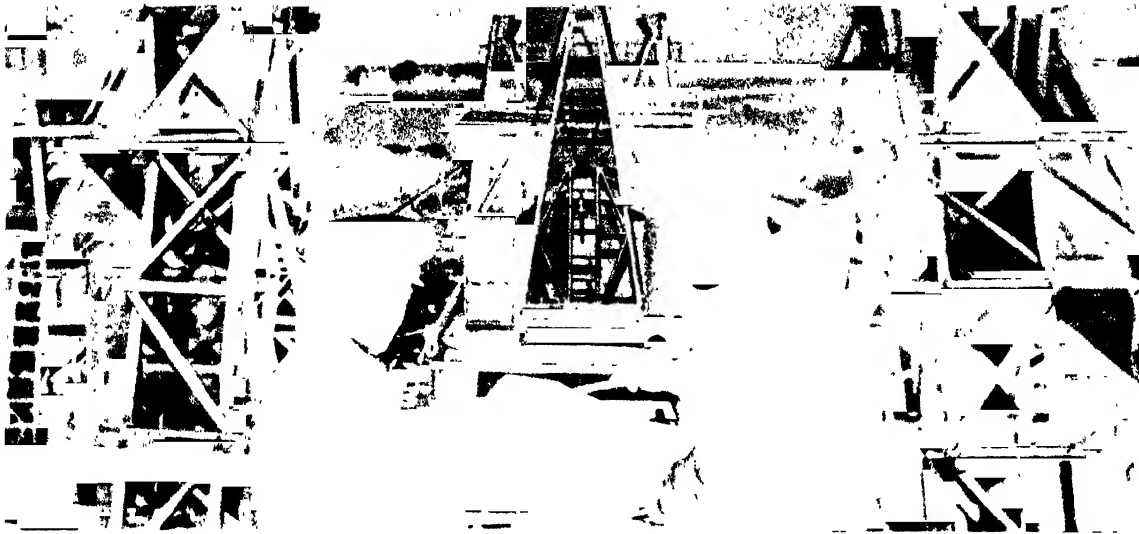
Devastated, lacerated by the Nazi invaders, the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic will not only heal its war wounds but stride ahead along the road of progress and prosperity.



The State Theatre of Opera and Ballet in Riga

THE MOTOR SHIP KOMSOMOLSK SETTING OUT ON HER REGULAR VOYAGE FROM THE PORT OF VENTSP.





Mounting of cranes in
the port of Riga.



Weaver Alissa Nitsmen
of the *Rizhskaya Manu-
factura* Textile Mill,
operating five looms,
exceeding her quota by
122 per cent



Andrei Upits, the well-known
Latvian writer



*The Arms
of the Estonian Soviet Socialist
Republic*

ESTONIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE ESTONIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC lies along the shore of the Baltic Sea, between the Gulf of Finland and the Gulf of Riga. The republic has an area of 45,000 square kilometres and a population of 1,100,000. In addition to Estonians, who comprise the bulk of the population, many Russians live in the republic, especially in its eastern section.

Before World War I, Estonia ranked among the economically most advanced regions of Russia because of her favourable geographical position and proximity to the capital, St. Petersburg. At that time Estonia was the site of Russia's biggest shipyard, the Russo-Baltic, with 11,000 workers, the Krenholm Cotton Weaving Mill with 14,000 workers and many other big industrial enterprises. Estonian farms supplied St. Petersburg with dairy products and meat.

Soviet power was set up in Estonia as a result of the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution, but in 1918, the Estonian capitalists and landlords, assisted by German forces of intervention, strangled the young Soviet Republic. The result was that Estonia seceded from Soviet Russia and became a bourgeois republic, which, though nominally independent, was actually a semi-colonial dependency of the major capitalist countries of Western Europe.

The national economy of Estonia severely declined under the rule of the bourgeois-landlord cliques. The number of workers in heavy industry dropped from 36,000 in 1913 to 17,400 in 1940. The Baltic and Krenholm cotton weaving mills were forced to cut production from 100,000,000 metres in 1913 to 17,100,000 metres in 1939.

In 1940 the Estonian State Assembly, carrying out the will of the people, expressed at numerous meetings and demonstrations, proclaimed Estonia a Soviet Socialist Republic, and the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., granting the request of the Estonian people, admitted Estonia into the Soviet Union.

The industry and agriculture of Soviet Estonia received great impetus for further development. However, the economic and cultural progress of the republic was disrupted in 1941 by the perfidious attack on the Soviet Union by Hitlerite Germany. The Estonian S.S.R. was occupied by the Nazi troops and the Hitlerites wiped out more than 125,000 Estonians, among them many intellectuals. They demolished all the electric power stations and wiring, flooded the slate mines, inflicted huge damage on the paper and pulp industry and almost completely destroyed the textile industry. Agriculture, chiefly stock breeding, suffered extensive damage. When they retreated before the hammer blows of the victorious Soviet Army, the enemy blew up all the railway bridges, tore off and carried away even the rails. They did not leave a stone standing in Narva and destroyed half of Tartu. The capital, Tallinn, was deeply scarred by the war. The German invaders, pursuing their policy of brutally strangling Estonian national culture, wrecked schools, universities and other cultural institutions. The losses suffered by the republic from direct destruction of property amounted to 16,000,000,000 rubles.

During the German occupation, Estonian partisans systematically decimated the man power and destroyed the equipment of the Hitlerite army, while Estonian regulars fought heroically in the ranks of the Soviet Army.

At present the people are engaged in extensive reconstruction work on the land which has been liberated from German fascist invaders. By the end of 1945 the republic's industry was already producing 53 per cent of pre-war level, and the pre-war output of peat and slate was surpassed in October 1946. There are schools, universities and writers' and artists' organizations. The literary magazine *Creation* and the literary and art weekly *Sickle and Hammer* along with others are published.

The Five-Year Plan for 1946-50 provides for the investment of the huge sum of 3,500,000,000 rubles in the republic's national economy. About three-fourths of this sum will be spent on the development of machine-building, the power station network, and the peat and slate industry. By the end of the Five-Year Plan period the total output of Estonian industry will surpass the 1940 level threefold, and this means that Estonia will lead the republics of the Soviet Union in rate of growth.

Mining of bituminous slate will reach 8,410,000 tons in 1950, i.e., will exceed the 1940 level by 400 per cent. This amount will not only be sufficient to supply the Estonian S.S.R. with gas, but will also be sufficient to supply gas to Leningrad. For this purpose a gas pipe line will be laid which will run through Kohtla and Jarvi to Leningrad over a distance of 262 kilometres. The mining and processing of slate will further assure a considerable increase in the output of such products of the slate industry as benzine, special oils, tar and so on.

Under the post-war Five-Year Plan a great deal of attention will be paid to developing electric power stations. In 1950 the output of electricity will reach 395,000,000 kilowatt-hours, i.e., double the pre-war figure.

The machinery industry will be greatly expanded. Two big shipbuilding yards will be restored and considerably enlarged. The republic will manufacture equipment for the slate and peat industries, electric motors, agricultural machines, telephone apparatus and so on. The Tallinn Bicycle Factory, after rehabilitation and enlargement, will produce 12,000 bicycles annually, and the radio factory 20,000 radio receiving sets.

The further growth of the cotton weaving industry is being assured. The Krenholm Textile Mill in Narva and the Baltic Mill in Tallinn will be completely restored. In 1950 Estonia's output of cotton fabrics will reach 121,400,000 metres, i.e., a five-and-a-half-fold increase over the 1946 level.

The new Five-Year Plan provides for the further growth of the food, and especially of the fish industry. The output of sprat will reach the pre-war level in 1948. A wide network of small sprat canning factories will be organized along the shore of the Baltic Sea.

Going beyond the mere restoration of the republic's agriculture, and especially stock breeding, the Five-Year Plan provides for its further development. At the end of the period, the number of head of cattle will be much greater than before the war. The pre-war level of area under grain will likewise be surpassed.

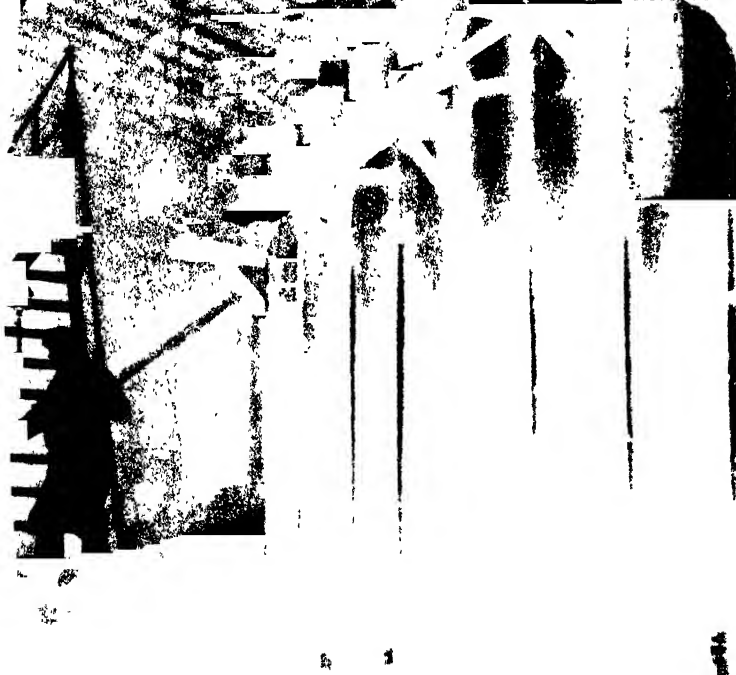
By 1950 restoration work on housing destroyed by the Germans will be completed in Tallinn, Tartu, Narva, Pärnu and other towns.

The network of medical service will be considerably expanded; the number of hospital beds will be brought up to 6,400. The number of schools will be increased to 1,148 and the number of pupils to 136,000. The ranks of scientific workers of the Academy of Sciences of the Estonian S.S.R., which was founded in 1946, will be considerably reinforced, while the Academy's institutes, laboratories and experimental stations will be fitted out with new equipment. A great number of new cultural institutions will be built simultaneously with the complete rehabilitation of the plundered museums and theatres, including the national theatre Estonia. New opportunities for creative development—linked with the carrying out of the gigantic tasks of the Stalin Five-Year Plan—are open to the economy and culture of the Estonian S.S.R. The art of the Estonian people, and its literature, graced by such talented writers as Kirner, Jacobson and others, have entered upon a new era, an era of decided cultural advancement envisioned by the new Stalin Five-Year Plan as a necessary concomitant of the country's economic advancement.



PORT OF TALLINN

GASOLINE REFINERY AT A SHALE PROCESSING PLANT IN KIVIEH



Johannes Vares, well-known Estonian author (died November 29, 1946)



Olga Lauristin, Minister of Social Maintenance of the Estonian S.S.R., member of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

THE BOLSHEVIK PARTY ADOPTS THE COURSE OF PREPARING FOR ARMED UPRISING SIXTH PARTY CONGRESS

THE SIXTH CONGRESS of the Bolshevik Party met in Petrograd in the midst of a frenzied campaign of Bolshevik-baiting in the bourgeois and petty-bourgeois press. It assembled ten years after the Fifth (London) Congress and five years after the Prague Conference of the Bolsheviks. The congress, which was held secretly, sat from July 26 (August 8) to August 3 (16), 1917. All that appeared in the press was an announcement of its convocation, the place of meeting was not divulged. The first sittings were held in the Vyborg District, the later ones in a school near the Narva Gate, where a House of Culture now stands. The bourgeois press demanded the arrest of the delegates. Detectives frantically scoured the city trying to discover the meeting place of the congress, but in vain.

And so, five months after the overthrow of tsardom, the Bolsheviks were compelled to meet in secret, while Lenin, the leader of the proletarian party, was forced to go into hiding and took refuge in a shanty near Razliv Station.

He was being hunted high and low by the sleuths of the Provisional Government and was therefore unable to attend the congress; but he guided its labours from his place of concealment through his close colleagues and disciples in Petrograd: Stalin, Sverdlov, Molotov, Orjonikidze.

The congress was attended by 157 delegates with vote and 128 with voice but no vote. At that time the Party had a membership of about 240,000. On July 3, i.e., before the workers' demonstration was broken up, when the Bolsheviks were still functioning legally, the Party had 41 publications, of which 29 were in Russian and 12 in other languages.

The chief items discussed at the congress were the political report of the Central Committee and the political situation. Stalin made the reports on both these questions. He showed with the utmost clarity how the revolution was growing and developing despite all the efforts of the bourgeoisie to suppress it. He pointed out that the revolution had placed on the order of the day the task of establishing workers' control over the production and distribution of products, of turning over the land to the peasants, and of transferring the power from the bourgeoisie to the working class and poor peasantry. He said that the revolution was assuming the character of a socialist revolution.

The political situation in the country had changed radically after the July days. The dual power had come to an end. The Soviets, led by Socialist-Revolutionaries and Mensheviks, had refused to take over full power and had therefore lost all power. The power was now concentrated in the hands of the bourgeois Provisional Government, and the latter was continuing to disarm the revolution, to smash its organizations and to destroy the Bolshevik Party. All possibility of a peaceful development of the revolution had vanished. Only one thing remained, Stalin said, namely, to take power by force, by overthrowing the Provisional Government. And only the proletariat, in alliance with the poor peasants, could take power by force.

The Soviets, still controlled by the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries, had landed in the camp of the bourgeoisie, and under existing conditions could be expected to act only as subsidiaries of the Provisional Government. Now, after the July days, Comrade Stalin said, the slogan "All power to the Soviets!" had to be withdrawn. However, the temporary withdrawal of this slogan did not in any way imply a renunciation of the struggle for the power of the Soviets. It was not the Soviets in general, as organs of revolutionary struggle,

that were in question, but only the existing Soviets, the Soviets controlled by the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries.

"The peaceful period of the revolution has ended," said Comrade Stalin, "a non-peaceful period has begun, a period of clashes and explosions."

The Party was headed for armed uprising.

There were some at the congress who, reflecting the bourgeois influence, opposed the adoption of the course of socialist revolution.

The Trotskyite Preobrazhensky proposed that the resolution on the conquest of power should state that the country could be directed towards socialism only in the event of a proletarian revolution in the West.

This Trotskyite motion was opposed by Comrade Stalin. He said:

"The possibility is not excluded that Russia will be the country that will lay the road to Socialism. . . . We must discard the antiquated idea that only Europe can show us the way. There is dogmatic Marxism and creative Marxism. I stand by the latter."

Bukharin, who held a Trotskyite position, asserted that the peasants supported the war, that they were in a bloc with the bourgeoisie and would not follow the working class.

Retorting to Bukharin, Comrade Stalin showed that there were different kinds of peasants: there were the rich peasants who supported the imperialist bourgeoisie, and there were the poor peasants who sought an alliance with the working class and would support it in a struggle for the victory of the revolution.

The congress rejected Preobrazhensky's and Bukharin's amendments and approved the resolution submitted by Comrade Stalin.

The congress discussed the economic platform of the Bolsheviks and approved it. Its main points were the confiscation of the landed estates and the nationalization of all the land, the nationalization of the banks, the nationalization of large-scale industry, and workers' control over production and distribution.

The congress stressed the importance of the fight for the workers' control over production, which was later to play a significant part during the nationalization of the large industrial enterprises.

The congress discussed whether Lenin should appear for trial. Kamenev, Rykov, Trotsky and others had held even before the congress that Lenin ought to appear before the counter-revolutionary court. Comrade Stalin was vigorously opposed to Lenin's appearing for trial. This was also the stand of the Sixth Congress, for it considered that it would be a lynching, not a trial. The congress had no doubt that the bourgeoisie wanted only one thing—the physical destruction of Lenin as the most dangerous enemy of the bourgeoisie. The congress protested against the police persecution of the leaders of the revolutionary proletariat by the bourgeoisie, and sent a message of greeting to Lenin.

The decisions of the Sixth Congress were all intended to prepare the proletariat and the poorer peasantry for an armed uprising. The Sixth Congress headed the Party for armed uprising, for the Socialist Revolution.



YEAR BY YEAR OUR YOUNG LITERATURE EXTENDS ITS FIELD OF VISION WITH GREATER STRENGTH AND RAPIDITY. NEVER BEFORE HAS THE ART OF WRITING SO ZEALOUSLY AND SUCCESSFULLY SERVED TO PROVIDE KNOWLEDGE OF LIFE.

...ONE MAY AND MUST, WITH MUCH GREATER JUSTIFICATION THAN BEFORE, SPEAK OF THE CURRENT LITERATURE OF THE SOVIET UNION AS COLLECTIVE WORK; NEVER BEFORE HAS A WRITER BEEN SO INTERESTING, SO CLOSE TO THE MASSES OF READERS, AS HE IS IN OUR DAY, HERE, IN THE UNION OF SOVIETS; NEVER HAS HE BEEN HELD IN SUCH ESTEEM BY THE MASSES, WITH A HIGH LEVEL OF LITERACY, AND THIS ESTEEM IS NATURAL, BECAUSE THE MASSES SEE HOW THEY THEMSELVES CREATE THE WRITER AND HOW HE PORTRAYS THEM IN HIS BOOKS.

M. Gorky





MIKHAIL SHOLOKHOV

MIKHAIL SHOLOKHOV

MIKHAIL ALEXANDROVICH SHOLOKHOV was born in 1905 on the Don, Kruzhilin farmstead, Veshenskaya stanitsa. He studied in a *gymnasium*. During the Civil War he fought against the Whiteguard bands on the Don. He came to Moscow in 1923 where he worked as a bricklayer and labourer. In 1925 he returned to Veshenskaya where he lives till the present day.

Sholokhov started his literary career in 1923 with a feuilleton in the newspaper *Yunosheskaya Pravda* (*Youth's Truth*). Two years later he wrote his first story, *The Shepherd*, which was published in the magazine *Krestyanskaya Molodyezh* (*Peasant Youth*). In 1926 a volume of his stories, *Azure Steppe*, was published, followed in 1930 by *Tales of the Don*. The four-volume novel *And Quiet Flows The Don*, on which the author worked for over fourteen years, began to appear in serial form in 1928.

Sholokhov's second big novel, *Soil Upturned*, appeared in 1932. At present the author is engaged in writing a book dealing with the Patriotic War entitled *They Fought For Their Country*, parts of which have already been printed.

Sholokhov is an outstanding Soviet writer whose treatment of subjects based on contemporary life reveal him to be a novelist of great artistic merit and deep thought.

Each new work of the author represents a sweeping portrayal in epic images of the most important stages in the new Soviet age, born out of struggle and fierce clashes with the old world.

His epic *And Quiet Flows the Don* reconstructs for the reader the panorama of Don Cossack life during the years preceding the revolution, the participation of Cossackdom in World War I and the fierce class struggle that raged on the Don during the Civil War. The central interest of the narrative is the history of a Cossack family by the name of Melekhov. The hero of the story, Grigori Melekhov, is a man of the people. He is depicted as an upright, straightforward, strong-willed man, but his will, governed by affects, is blind and inconsistent. Subjectively Melekhov would seem to be on the side of the people, but objectively his behaviour places him in the service of the landlord-bourgeois counter-revolution. Grigori Melekhov is patriotically-minded, but actually he reconciles himself to the interventionists ruling the roost in his country. He possesses innate moral qualities of a high order, but the logic of events makes him a tool in the hands of the Whiteguards, the suppressors of the liberated people.

In the process of probing the psychological depths of his characters Sholokhov has shown that the conditions for personal happiness lie only in the liberation and well-being

of the people, and the country's prosperity. Grigori Melekhov, even during the most poignant period of the revolution and the Civil War, failed to grasp the relation that existed between his personal well-being and social conditions. And ultimately, for all his engaging intrinsic virtues, Grigori Melekhov is plunged into a state of utter frustration and inner moral desolation.

And Quiet Flows The Don, for which its author was awarded the Stalin Prize, is a monumental and edifying work.

No less popular among the Soviet public is Sholokhov's second great novel, *Soil Upturned*. The story, which Sholokhov unfolds with great dramatic power, is based on collectivization of agriculture in the Don area. The author, with unusual power and fidelity, describes the difficult road by which the peasant proprietor, beset by doubts and vacillations, is eventually brought to embrace the idea of collective farming. The reader's attention is focussed on the Leningrad worker Davydov, sent by the Communist Party to work in the countryside, who becomes a genuine leader of the poor and middle peasants striving to free themselves from kulak bondage. Konrad Maidannikov, another character in the novel, is a typical representative of the Cossack masses who had entered the path of collectivization. This novel is of very great artistic and educational value. Sholokhov gives us vivid and unforgettable scenes and images of the Soviet peasantry at the period of the great turning point, during the years of its revolutionary transformation of the age-old individualistic ways of life, based on private property.

In his latest novel, *They Fought For Their Country*, Sholokhov describes ordinary Soviet people and Soviet Army men. Their thoughts, feelings and actions, their attitude to country, war, death, religion, nature and socialist property and hatred for the fascist enemy—all this is blended in a remarkable portrayal of a people who have built up Socialism in their country and defended their Socialist motherland with deeds of incredible valour from the encroachments of an insolent and powerful enemy. Here, as in his previous works, Sholokhov shows a profound and intimate understanding of life, gives masterly character studies, and fills his narration with thrilling action.

The works of Mikhail Sholokhov are a literary chronicle of Soviet life. They are extremely popular in the country and have been translated into many foreign languages. The writer has been elected a member of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. His name is famous throughout the country; he lives in close contact with the people, with the heroes of his novels. M. Sholokhov is deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. from the Don Cossack constituency.



ALEXANDER FADEYEV

ALEXANDER FADEYEV

General Secretary of the Union of Soviet Writers

ALEXANDER ALEXANDROVICH FADEYEV was born in 1901 in Kimry, Tver gubernia. His father and mother, both of peasant stock, were qualified medical assistants. He spent his childhood in South Ussuri territory and attended a business school in Vladivostok. In 1918 he joined the Communist Party, taking an active part in the partisan movement against General Kolchak's White Army and the Japanese invaders in the Primorye (Maritime province). When the Civil War was over he matriculated at the Moscow Mining Institute.

In 1923 Fadeyev's first tale, *The Flood*, appeared, to be followed soon by another, *Against the Current*. Even in these early works, which tended to be schematic and exhibited a superfluity of external romantic effects, Fadeyev set himself goals that he worked all his life to achieve. He became absorbed in some of the biggest problems advanced by the revolution: the figure of the Bolshevik leader of the people, the problem of Party guidance of the masses, the conflict between the socialist mind and the individualism and the philosophy of the philistine, the figure of the intellectual and of the man in the street.

In 1925-26 Fadeyev wrote *The Nineteen*. For the first time in Soviet literature a novel made its appearance containing a profoundly true depiction of a Bolshevik, radiant with life. Levinson, the commander of a partisan detachment (chief character of the novel) experienced that "enormous thirst that consumes the new species of man, admirable, vigorous, goodhearted—a thirst that defies comparison with any other desire." Levinson's detachment is surrounded and beaten and only 19 of its members succeed in breaking through. Still the guerrillas refuse to accept defeat. *Defeat* is a book describing how, under the influence of Bolshevik ideas and Bolshevik morale, like that possessed by Levinson and others of his calibre, hundreds and thousands of yesterday's slaves of capitalism were being retrained for a new life, how the mind of the new Soviet man was undergoing its process of formation. It is a novel dealing with the art of Bolshevik revolutionary strategy. The book is an answer to the question of why the revolution triumphed in Russia.

In 1930-36 three parts of Fadeyev's new novel, *The Last of the Udegei*, were published, the concluding part still being worked on by the author. The purpose of this novel was to show how under the leadership of the victorious proletariat the Udegei people, whose mode of life was still patriarchal, was advancing towards socialism, skipping the intermediate socio-economic systems. The plot is laid in the Civil War. The parts already in print are replete with material on the proletarian revolution in the Far East, primarily the partisan movement against the Whiteguards and the forces of intervention, with the daily life and customs of the Udegei tribe as their social background. Among the leading characters are the capitalist Gimmer and his family; revolutionary leaders and rank and filers like Surkov, Alyosha Malenki and "Ptashka," and a choice selection of kulaks, Whiteguard officers and intellectuals. The novel is a faithful representation of the embattled masses, of the people fighting for the new life.

When the country was in the throes of the war against Nazi Germany, Fadeyev devoted himself largely to journalistic writings; he also published a book of sketches on *Wartime Leningrad* and the novel, *The Young Guard*.

His Leningrad sketches speak of the fine morale of the

people of that city during the tragic days of its blockade, and of the triumph of the Leningraders' high spiritual qualities over their physical torments. "Greater and more admirable than all else that Leningrad forged during these months of fighting and suffering," says the author on closing the book, "were the city's front-row people."

The Young Guard rests upon a fabric of true events culled from the life of an underground organization of Young Communist League members which was active in the town of Krasnodon, near Voroshilovgrad, during the German occupation. Fifty-five young boys and girls were shot by the Nazis in the dungeons after excruciating torture. The title of Hero of the Soviet Union was posthumously conferred by the Soviet government upon the leaders of this valiant group, Oleg Koshvoi, Ulyana Gromova, Sergei Tulenin, Lyubov Shevtsova and Ivan Zemnukhov.

In this work Fadeyev arrives at far-reaching philosophical generalizations. In it he casts a balance of the life and development of Soviet society for the past quarter of a century. Two generations of Soviet people pass in review: the older generation—those who accomplished the great turn in the history of mankind, who created the first socialist state in the world, maintained it in its fierce clashes with its numerous enemies, and brought up those who were to carry on their cause—and a younger generation, grown up under the powerful influence of a Communist ideology and raised by the new society.

Regard for work as the basis of life, contempt for idlers, and hatred for exploitation of man by man, no matter what its form, have become fundamental principles of Soviet youth, inculcated by the whole manner of life in the period of the Stalin Five-Year Plans, filled with the great spirit of creative labour. The author bares before the reader his heroes' inner being, shows him the clean life radiant with happiness of the oncoming Soviet generation, a life blighted by an evil, inimical force that offends the soul by its denial of all that was dear to each of these young people. The book is a gripping account of the valiant fight for happiness and freedom put up by the Young Guard organization.

The portraits of Matvei Shulga and Andrei Valko, lower Party officials, are drawn by the author with great mastery. With talent and inspiration Fadeyev reveals the source of the spiritual strength and courage of these real leaders of the people. These true Bolsheviks, and other Soviet people of heroic stature rendered by the author, who fought the Nazis each in his own way, have been deeply engraved in our memories. Among them are miners and collective farmers, teachers and pupils, agronomists and officials from government institutions and Party organizations, Soviet Army officers and men. *The Young Guard* is the first great post-war literary work that presents a penetrating and comprehensive analysis of the new, Soviet man, uncovers the deep-seated roots of the people's patriotism. The novel describes the diverse ways in which Communist ethics and morality took form and determined the conduct of Soviet people in the trials and tribulations of the war. The book supplies a convincing answer to all who want to know why the Soviet Union won the war with barbaric Nazi Germany.

Alexander Fadeyev is one of the best writers of realistic Soviet novels. He is a pioneer of Soviet socialist literature, in which we find depicted a new man, the product of the Great October Revolution. He is the recipient of a Stalin Prize.

NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY



LEONID LEONOV

Leonid Maximovich Leonov, Soviet novelist and playwright, was born in 1899 in the family of a self-taught poet of peasant origin. Leonov's childhood was spent in Moscow where he graduated from the *gymnasium*. During the Civil War he served in the Red Army and worked for the army newspapers. He took part in the famous storm of the Perekop Isthmus in the Crimea.

In 1922, Leonov published his first story *Buryga*, a literary rendition of a folk tale and soon he took the place he deserved among the leading Soviet prose writers.

Leonov's principal works are the novels, *Badgers*, *Sott*, *Skutarevsky*, *Road to the Ocean*, *The Capture of Velikoshumsk* and the plays *Polovchan Orchards*, *An Ordinary Man* and *Invasion*.

The outstanding features of Leonid Leonov's talent are his keenly inquisitive attitude to reality and the intense passion with which he raises problems of contemporary life in his books. With great profundity and truth Leonov described the collapse of the old countryside (*Badgers*); he analyzed the new mood of the old technical intelligentsia and the swing

of the best of them to the Soviet side (*Skutarevsky*); he pictured the building of the new socialist industry (*Sott*).

In his play *Invasion*, written in the very first months of the Patriotic War, Leonov gave art form to that vitalizing force of Soviet patriotism that inspired the Soviet people to victory.

Leonid Leonov is a master of prose writing, with a profound knowledge of the Russian language. He abhors stereotyped situations. His characters are noteworthy for the intricacy and unusualness of their psychological makeup. He excels in painting pen portraits.

Speaking of Leonov's work, Maxim Gorky once said: "He, Leonov, is very talented, he will remain talented for his whole life and will do big things."

During the Patriotic War Leonov did not confine himself to writing novels and plays; he also showed himself a brilliant publicist with a strong and biting pen.

Leonov's play, *Invasion*, was awarded a Stalin Prize. Its author was elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.



ILYA EHRENBURG

ILYA EHRENBURG was born in 1891 into the family of a Moscow manufacturer. At the age of fifteen he joined the revolutionary movement. He was expelled from the *gymnasium* for distributing Bolshevik leaflets, was arrested and served more than a year in prison. From 1909 to 1917 he was a resident of Paris and did much travelling throughout Europe. It was at this time that he took to writing poetry, which he printed in Russia and other countries. In 1917 he returned to his native country. In 1921 he again left for France, and lived in Paris, making frequent trips to the Soviet Union. Soon his first prose work appeared, *Julio Jurenito*, a novel which took the public by storm. It was translated into several languages. Since then over half a hundred books of his have been published. Nineteen-forty found him permanently domiciled at Moscow.

Ehrenburg's writings show great diversity of theme and genre. Whether the work at hand was a purely literary article or a novel of fantastic cast, a story of adventure or a delicately penned novelette, a book of verse or a political pamphlet,

whether he was dispensing humour or the comments of a journalist, he wielded pen with equal mastery and brilliance. His novels, *The D. E. Trust*, *The Love of Jeanne Ney*, *Without Pausing for Breath*, and *Thirteen Pipes*, a collection of short stories, enjoy great popularity.

His latest novel, *The Fall of Paris*, describing France's defeat in World War II, was awarded a Stalin Prize.

Ilya Ehrenburg's literary work during the war was of a particularly high order. He became the favourite writer of the Soviet Army, and one of the most popular journalists throughout the world, when he acted as war correspondent and feature writer of the army newspaper *Krasnaya Zvezda* (*Red Star*).

Ehrenburg has now resumed his peacetime literary pursuits. New novels flow from his facile pen; he travels about and then delivers travelogs on what he saw and heard. He recently completed his new novel *Storm*. This gifted writer and journalist has turned his splendid capacity for work to good account in the cause of consolidating peace.



KONSTANTIN SIMONOV

KONSTANTIN MIKHAILOVICH SIMONOV, poet, playwright and journalist, was born in Petrograd in 1915. In 1938, he graduated from the Literature Institute of the Union of Soviet Writers and became a war correspondent in 1939, when the Japanese imperialists attacked the Mongolian People's Republic. He was also a correspondent in the war against the Finnish Whiteguards in 1939-40 and in the Great Patriotic War of 1941-45. His articles and feature stories on the Great Patriotic War have been collected in a four-volume series entitled *From the Barents to the Black Sea*.

Konstantin Simonov is a writer with an enormous capacity for creative effort which had been especially fruitful during the past six or seven years. He is in constant search for new impressions and reacts quickly to burning issues of the day; he possesses artistic boldness and a keen, penetrating mind. In the motley stream of everyday life the writer's observant eye is able to pick out the outstanding features of the times. Thus, in his novel *Days and Nights*, written while the impressions of the historic Battle of Stalingrad which he witnessed were still fresh in his mind, Simonov revealed the spiritual features of the Soviet fighting men who were defending

Stalingrad, and thus recorded for posterity the turning point of the war.

Simonov expressed the bitter hatred of the people for the German invaders with especial vividness in his poem *Kill Him!*

In the early days of the war, when wives and sweethearts at home and the men at the front were experiencing the pangs of separation, Simonov caught this mood of millions and his poem *Wait For Me* became an oath of fidelity of the Soviet people.

In his works the writer turns both to the distant past—the poems *The Vanquisher*, *Suvorov*, *Battle of the Ice*; and to the present—the plays *Russian People*, *A Lad From Our Town*, *So Be It*, *Wait For Me*. He also writes of the bright future that is in store for men.

Simonov has been awarded four Stalin Prizes for the plays, *A Lad From Our Town* (1942), *Russian People* (1943), the novel *Days and Nights* (1946), and the play *The Russian Question* (1947).

He is a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and Assistant General Secretary of the Union of Soviet Writers.



ALEXANDER TVARDOVSKY

ALEXANDER TRIFONOVICH TVARDOVSKY, talented Soviet poet, was born in 1910. The son of a peasant, he spent his childhood and youth in the village. He mastered the rudiments of literature by self-education and did not receive a higher education until after he had won recognition as a poet.

Tvardovsky was an eye-witness to, and took part in, that great revolutionary change that fundamentally transformed the Russian countryside—the collectivization of agriculture.

Tvardovsky's poetry has won him an important place in Soviet literature. It is dear to the heart and intelligible to the mind of the common man. By its treatment of peasant life it is akin to the democratic poetry of the great Russian poet, Nikolai Nekrasov.

In his verses and poems, written before the war, Tvardovsky extolled man's emancipation from the fetters of private property; he glorified labour in which man finds happiness; and he hailed the birth of the new socialist consciousness in the Soviet peasant. Some of his verses contained excellent character studies of collective farmers. His most outstanding work of

this period was the poem *The Land of Muravia* (1936), which won him a Stalin Prize.

During the Patriotic War, Tvardovsky wrote many verses dealing with the war, but his most important work of this period was the big poem, *Vassili Terkin*, which he wrote and published serially in the course of the war. The poem describes the spiritual growth of a Soviet soldier, the son of a peasant; and Tvardovsky has risen to artistic heights in painting a consummate portrait of the Soviet warrior, whose outstanding characteristics are—an active humanism and sense of responsibility for the fate of his country. The poem has a musical quality and a remarkable lilt. It contains a variety of folk motifs, and though it speaks of blood and death it is life-affirming; it appealed to the Soviet people to battle against the hardships of war, and to fight for victory. The poem enjoyed great success and the name of its hero has become a familiar appellation.

In 1946 Alexander Tvardovsky was awarded a Stalin Prize for his poem *Vassili Terkin*.

ALEXEI SURKOV

ALEXEI ALEXANDROVICH SURKOV was born in 1899. He began work at the age of twelve. For some time he worked as a weighman in the port of St. Petersburg; in 1917 he went to the Civil War front together with those "who believed in mankind and followed behind Lenin against the winds that blew from the past." He came back from the front in 1922. In 1934 he graduated from the Institute of Red Professors. He became editor of *Literary Education*, founded by Maxim Gorky, and then of the *Literary Gazette*, organ of the Union of Soviet Writers. Today, Alexei Surkov is editor of *Ogonyok*, one of the most popular magazines in the U.S.S.R. Surkov's first book of verse, *Chorus*, was published in 1930.

During the next few years he published other collections of verses, *Coevals* and *Land of the Brave*.

From 1941 to 1945, Alexei Surkov served as a war correspondent at the front. His *Frontline Notebook* was his first book of war verses, published in 1941. Other collections of Surkov's poems issued during the war were *December near Moscow*, *All Roads Lead to the West*, *Russia Punishes*, *I Sing of Victory*, and *Songs from a Wrathful Heart*.

Alexei Surkov is extremely popular in the Soviet Union. Many of his lyrics have been put to music and are loved by the people. He is a Stalin Prize winner and a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R.



MIKHAIL ISAKOVSKY

MIKHAIL VASSILIEVICH ISAKOVSKY, the poet, son of a poor peasant, was born in a tiny Byelorussian village in 1900. He acquired a secondary education at the expense of the state and in 1917-18 worked as a teacher in a village school. Later he tried his hand at journalism; beginning with 1919 he worked on a number of local and regional newspapers, finally ending up in Moscow in 1931 as the editor of the magazine *Kolkhoznik*.

His first book of verse, *Wine in the Straw*, was published in 1927; as the bard of the new Soviet countryside Isakovsky sang of electricity in the villages and of the bonds between the rejuvenated towns and villages of the Soviet Union—"the sounds of our native fields have grown more lyrical," he wrote; and, "every tiny hamlet has a field of vision as wide as that of Moscow." Even these early verses expressed the poet's profound belief in the brighter future of his country.

In 1931 another book of Isakovsky's verse appeared—*Masters of the Soil*—to be followed in 1931, 1933, and 1936 by collections of *Selected Verses*, in 1938 by *Verses and Lyrics*, in 1942 by *New Verses*, in 1943 by *Admonition to My Son*, in 1945 by *Song of the Homeland* and in 1946 by *Lyrics*. All the poet's emotions and passion have gone into the making of

verses that have as their leit-motif a love of his native land and a deep, filial devotion to the people.

As a writer of lyrics to be set to music Mikhail Isakovsky is an accomplished master. The way in which he is able to give perfect expression to the combination of personal and social feelings in the modern Soviet man is little short of astounding. His lyrics possess all the finer qualities of the Russian folk song—they can be easily set to music and sung, their rhythm is simple and natural, the figures appearing in them are concrete but nevertheless show great spiritual depth. Isakovsky's love songs and songs telling of the doings of modest Soviet people are both humorous and touching: songs like *Winking A Soldier Coming Home from the Frontier*, *The First Letter*, *Katyusha* and many others are favourites at any evening gathering in town or village, and in the army and the navy; they are sung by old and young. The poet's ability to draw composite figures summarizing many good qualities, his ability to give simple expression to the profound wisdom of the people in a style becoming a great artist, have won him wide popularity. Mikhail Isakovsky is a Stalin Prize winner and a deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the R.S.F.S.R.



SAMUEL MARSHAK

SAMUEL MARSHAK was born in 1887. His start in literary life he owed largely to Maxim Gorky, in the circle of whose family he spent part of his youth. He first appeared in print in 1907, with lyrics of his own and translations of foreign poets.

Marshak has made the English poets of the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries available to the Russian reader of today, and has endeared them to him. He reintroduced to us Burns, Wordsworth, Blake and Keats and the English folk ballads. During the last few years Marshak has done first-rate translations of Shakespeare's sonnets.

During the late war Marshak scored great success as a satirist and pamphleteer. His versified caricatures of the braggart fascist warriors and his stinging, sharp-witted epigrams regularly enlivened the pages of Moscow's leading newspapers.

Marshak has been most prolific in the field of juvenile literature. In his books for children we find him an exponent of a new, Soviet humanism. He inculcates respect for the man who knows his job, respect for collective creative work.

Marshak also wrote several plays based on Russian fairy tales and designed for the juvenile stage: *Teremok*, *Grief Upon Grief*, *Twelve Months*. The latter, written in a light and witty vein, deserves special mention. It portrays twelve wise and just rulers of nature, and two girls of opposite type, the one good, whom they help, and the other bad, whom they punish. The play was awarded a Stalin Prize in 1946. Marshak had been similarly honoured in 1942 for the texts in verse he had composed for posters and cartoons.



ILYA ILF



EVGENI PETROV

ILYA ILF and EVGENI PETROV

THE LITERARY BIOGRAPHIES of Ilya Ilf and Evgeni Petrov commenced shortly before they met and began writing together. Ilf was born in 1897. He was Petrov's senior by six years. They both grew up in Odessa but got acquainted only in 1932 in Moscow. At that time Ilf, having already tried his hand at several other occupations, had a job with the railway newspaper *Gudok*. Petrov, after two years' service in the army, had also joined *Gudok* as a feuilletonist, and it was in the editorial office that they first met. Recalling those days, Petrov wrote about Ilf: "He was an extremely sarcastic young man of twenty-six, wearing pince-nez with extra-thick lenses. He had a somewhat asymmetrical, hard-set face with a slight touch of colour over his cheekbones. . . . His literary taste seemed to me, at that time, impeccable, and I exalted in the boldness of his opinions."

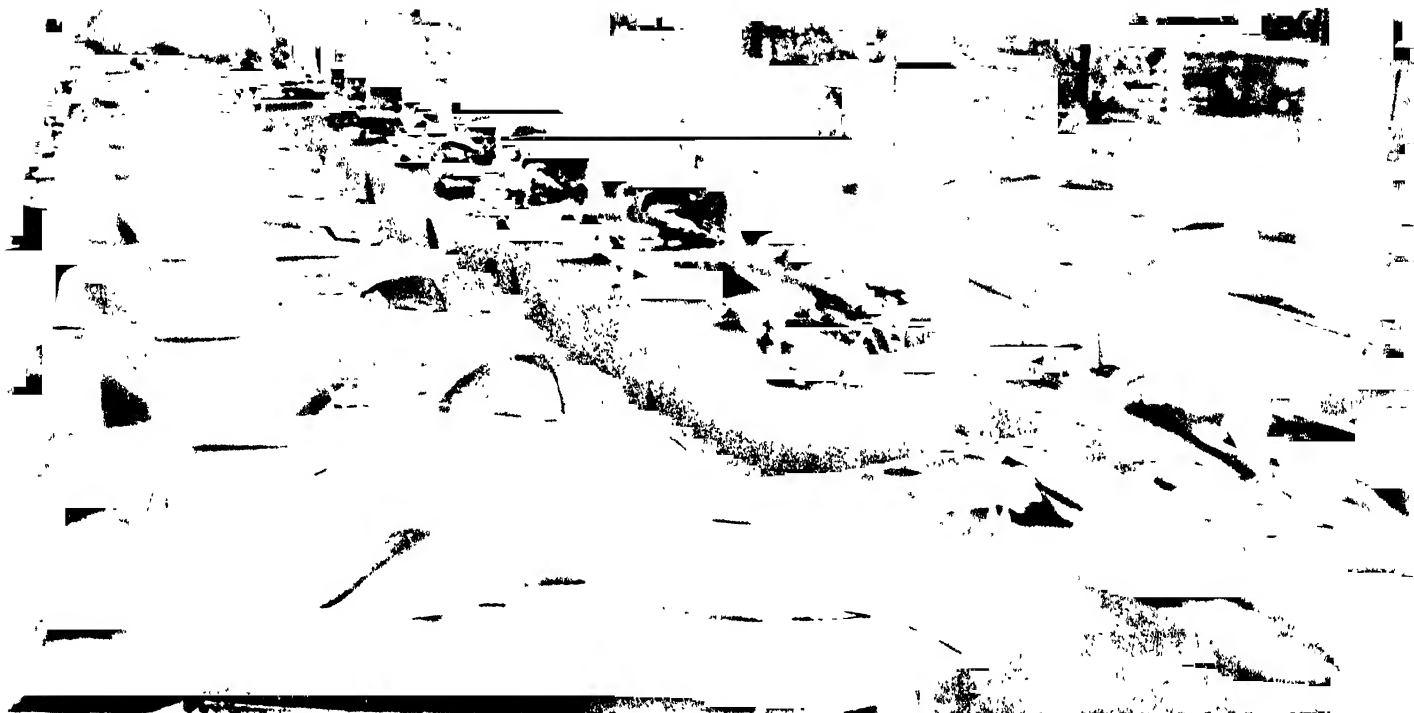
The first literary work on which Ilf and Petrov collaborated was the novel *Twelve Chairs*. The success of this novel cemented the union of the talented humourists and for ten years, until death overtook Ilf, their literary fate remained indivisible. The first few years of their collaboration were a fruitful though exhausting wrangle due to different experiences and literary talents of two individuals. But later on their distinct viewpoints gradually blended into a common outlook, a common taste and a common style. As Petrov admits, their joint work eventually led to their complete spiritual fusion.

After the publication of their first novel, Ilf and Petrov became staff feuilletonists for the newspaper *Pravda*.

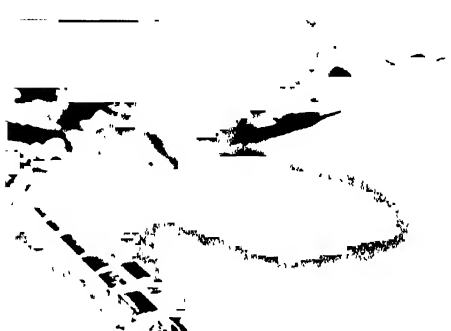
The year 1933 saw the appearance of their second novel—*The Golden Calf*, in which Ostap Bender, the notorious trickster-hero of the *Twelve Chairs* completes his adventures. Shortly thereafter, Ilf and Petrov toured the United States. Ilf returned from America with an acute relapse of tuberculosis from which he suffered in his youth. However, his illness did not keep him from writing and soon after their return from the trip Ilya Ilf and Evgeni Petrov finished their *One-Strided America*, a book of excellently written sketches, hailed and lauded by readers throughout the world.

In 1937, Ilf died, and Petrov, as he once wrote, remained "alone with his typewriter in a quiet and empty room." Nevertheless, Petrov did not cease to work. At the outbreak of the Great Patriotic War he was editor of a large illustrated magazine. In the early days of hostilities Evgeni Petrov became a war correspondent. Tirelessly shuffling from one front to another, between the Barents and Black seas, he kept his readers informed of the war's progress with his skilfully written articles and essays.

Evgeni Petrov was killed in an aeroplane crash in 1942, while returning from besieged Sevastopol. His last work was an unfinished essay dealing with the heroic defence of that city.



THE "ILYUSHIN-2" ASSEMBLY SHOP



Soviet planes bombing a German troop train



Hero of the Soviet Union Senior Lieutenant Alexander Sukhov (*left*) reporting on a battle with a German plane over Berlin to Thrice Hero of the Soviet Union Colonel Alexander Pokryshkin, 1945



AVIATION DAY

IN 1933, THE SOVIET GOVERNMENT instituted an annual Aviation Day. It was to be a year-to-year review of what had been achieved by the Soviet air fleet.

The air power of the Soviet Union grew with every year. The flights of Valeri Chkalov, Mikhail Gromov and Vladimir Kokkinaki inaugurated an age of brilliant Soviet air records. And each succeeding annual air pageant displayed ever more powerful and perfect Soviet aircraft models.

World War II suspended the traditional Aviation Day festivities. For four years pilots and navigators gave daily account of themselves to the country by their showing at the front, and workers and aircraft designers—by their devoted effort in the rear.

The contribution which the Soviet air forces made to victory would be hard to overrate. Aside from the mass of work done every day on the enormous front, the Soviet air force brilliantly executed a succession of major operations. These include the air battles in the Moscow area at the end of 1941, when Soviet aircraft afforded the capital secure protection from enemy raids; the aerial phase of the historic Battle of Stalingrad, in which Soviet airmen put the lid on the trapped army of Paulus, and later on, by concentrated raids, contributed to its annihilation; the air battles of the Kuban in the spring of 1943, in which Soviet planes and tactics proved their superiority over the German.

Next came the air battle over the Kursk salient; the aerial cover provided for the great drive by Soviet mechanized forces from the Vistula to the Oder; and, crowning the whole glorious series of exploits, the giant air battle of Berlin. For the Berlin battle the Germans mustered every trump they still had left. Rocket planes and flying bombs of various descriptions made their appearance. But in spite of these, and of the frantic resistance it offered, the Luftwaffe was utterly crushed.

Soviet air officers and generals showed themselves expert at supporting infantry, artillery and tanks, and at using large masses of aircraft over the actual scene of ground fighting.

The Soviet people are legitimately proud of their gallant airmen, whom they often call "Stalin falcons" as a token of special admiration and affection. Foremost among the thousands of master aviators are fighter pilots Alexander Pokryshkin and Ivan Kozhedub, both of them now deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

Colonel Pokryshkin holds many high distinctions, both of the U.S.S.R. and other countries. He is an acknowledged master of aerial combat, yet his salient characteristic is a constant search for the new. During the war, Colonel Pokryshkin won general recognition as innovator in air-combat tactics. The tactical device originating with him helped Soviet fighter pilots time and again to worst boasted German aces. Pokryshkin himself sent down 59 German aircraft and enjoyed a reputation of veritable invincibility. His splendid services have been fittingly acknowledged—he was thrice honoured with the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

Major Kozhedub is the one other man to wear the insignia of Thrice Hero of the Soviet Union. This is a younger pilot. His fighting career did not begin until 1943—but before the war ended he had downed 62 German planes, the last of them over Berlin, late in April 1945.

In equal honour with its airmen, the Soviet land holds the makers of its planes—the designers, the engineers, the leading workers in aircraft production. The names of the foremost among them are widely known, for Soviet planes are named for their authors. The names of Alexander Yakovlev or Semyon Lavochkin conjure up visions of the magnificent Soviet high-speed fighter-planes. Mention of Sergei Ilyushin or Andrei Tupolev puts one in mind of the formidable Ilyushin-10 stormoviks and Tupolev-2 dive-bombers.

All through the war, Soviet designers were bringing forth new and more perfect models of combat machines. In the all-out contest of wits with the enemy designers, the Soviet engineers came out on top. And the Soviet aircraft industry turned out as many as 40,000 such planes every year.

Last year—1946—Aviation Day in the U.S.S.R. was celebrated according to peacetime tradition for the first time since the war. Once again it was a day of great popular festivities. At the Tushino aerodrome near the capital, before 300,000 spectators, airmen gave an impressive display of skill. The latest designing achievements, notably in the line of helicopters, passenger planes, dirigible construction and rocket planes also won expressions of admiration.

And this year too, the Soviet people's celebration of their traditional Aviation Day was an expression of pride in their air forces.



Sergei Ilyushin in his office

Hero of Socialist Labour
Alexander Yakovlev,
designer of aeroplanes

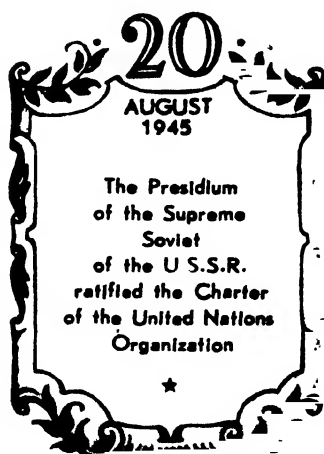
Center, top: Andrei Tupolev and Semyon Lavochkin (left to right) at an aerodrome watching the performance of planes they had designed

Thrice Hero of the Soviet Union
Ivan Kozhedub (left) on a visit
to Boris Shpitalny, the well-
known Soviet aeroplane designer



THE FIRST SESSION OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF THE UNITED NATIONS ORGANIZATION

A. Y. Vyshinsky (right), with the Soviet delegation



CHARTER OF THE UNITED NATIONS

(*Excerpts*)

THE PEOPLES of the United Nations determined to **W** save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom, and for these ends to practise tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours, and to unite our strength to maintain in-

ternational peace and security, and to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used, save in the common interest, and to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples, have resolved to combine our efforts to accomplish these aims.

Accordingly, our respective governments, through representatives assembled in the city of San Francisco, who have exhibited their full powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed to the present Charter of the United Nations and do hereby establish an international organization to be known as the United Nations.

CHAPTER I

Purposes and Principles

ARTICLE 1

The Purposes of the United Nations are:

1. To maintain international peace and security, and to that end: to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace, and to bring about by peaceful means, and in conformity with the principles of justice and international law, adjustment or settlement of international disputes or situations which might lead to a breach of the peace;
2. To develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace;
3. To achieve international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion; and
4. To be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends.

ARTICLE 2

The Organization and its Members, in pursuit of the Purposes stated in Article 1, shall act in accordance with the following Principles.

1. The Organization is based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all its Members.

2. All Members, in order to ensure to all of them the rights and benefits resulting from membership, shall fulfil in good faith the obligations assumed by them in accordance with the present Charter.

3. All Members shall settle their international disputes by peaceful means in such a manner that international peace and security, and justice, are not endangered.

4. All Members shall refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any state, or in any other manner inconsistent with the Purposes of the United Nations.

5. All Members shall give the United Nations every assistance in any action it takes in accordance with the present Charter, and shall refrain from giving assistance to any state against which the United Nations is taking preventive or enforcement action.

6. The Organization shall ensure that states which are not Members of the United Nations act in accordance with these Principles so far as may be necessary for the maintenance of international peace and security.

7. Nothing contained in the present Charter shall authorize the United Nations to intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state or shall require the Members to submit such matters to settlement under the present Charter.



***The Arms
of the Kazakh Soviet Socialist
Republic***

KAZAKH SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE KAZAKH SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC extends over a vast territory of 2,700,000 square kilometres—equal to nearly half the territory of Western Europe. The republic has a population of 6,100,000 (according to the 1939 census) of whom 57 per cent are Kazakhs; the rest are Russians, Ukrainians, Uzbeks, Uighurs and Dughans.

Before the Great October Socialist Revolution, Kazakhstan was an economically and culturally backward colonial borderland of tsarist Russia. The principal occupation of the native Kazakh population was extensive nomad and semi-nomad cattle breeding. The greater part of the cattle belonged to the *beys* who cruelly exploited the Kazakh poor. Want of fodder, frequently caused by climatic conditions, resulted in cattle plague and loss of human life. There was hardly any agriculture and there was no modern industry whatever in this vast country. Its inexhaustible mineral resources lay untouched. The tsarist government strangled the national culture of the Kazakh people, and the toiling Kazakhs were nearly all illiterate.

The Great October Revolution freed the peoples of Kazakhstan from the grip of poverty and exploitation and transformed the country into a prosperous Soviet Socialist Republic with her own independent statehood. Hundreds of industrial enterprises, equipped with up-to-date machinery, have been built in Kazakhstan since the inception of Soviet power, mainly in the course of implementing the Stalin Five-Year Plans.

A heavy industry with extensive power resources has been built from scratch. The Kazakh S.S.R. has become the principal centre of non-ferrous metallurgy in the Soviet Union. A huge copper-smelting plant with its own ore fields—Kounrad—has been built on the northern shores of Lake Balkhash. The Karsakpai Copper-Smelting Plant, working on the ore of the rich Jezkazgan deposits, came into being in Central Kazakhstan. A big lead refinery has been built in Chimkent. The Karaganda Coal Basin now produces millions of tons of coal, while Karaganda, only yesterday an insignificant hamlet, has changed into a big industrial centre. The rich Emba oil district which contains one-eighth of the world's known oil reserves has greatly increased its output.

A fishing industry on the North Caspian Sea, the Aral Sea and Lake Balkhash has been organized. Huge meat-processing plants, dozens of sugar refineries, creameries, clothing factories and other light-industry enterprises have been built. An extensively developed transport system, including 9,800 kilometres of railway lines, 6,000 kilometres of waterways, 110,000 kilometres of highways and 18,000 kilometres of airlines, has been constructed in formerly roadless Kazakhstan.

Great progress has been made in Kazakh farming. The Soviet government confiscated the land formerly owned by the *beys* and allotted more than 2,500,000 hectares of arable and grazing land to the Kazakh nomads. The government helped them first to settle on the land, then to unite in collective farms. The organization of 363 machine and tractor stations provided the collective farms with tractors, combines and motor vehicles. Two hundred and fifty large cattle breeding, grain-growing, cotton-growing and other state farms have grown up in the vast, formerly desert areas of the republic. The area of the republic's irrigated lands amounted to 1,350,000 hectares in 1945, i. e., an 87 per cent increase over the 1915 figure. In 1940, the total grain harvest amounted to 630,000 tons—double the pre-revolutionary harvest; the cotton crop increased 8.5 times over, while the sugar-beet crop—a new crop for Kazakhstan—amounted to 450,000 tons.

More than 15,000,000 head of cattle now graze on the pastures of Kazakhstan. The collective-farm herds increased by 4,200,000 during the Patriotic War alone. The republic occupies one of the leading places in the U.S.S.R. for rate of cattle increase and third place for its numbers of cattle. It has

become the principal cattle breeding centre of the U.S.S.R. in the East.

Since the establishment of Soviet power the Kazakh people have undergone a veritable cultural revolution. Compulsory and universal elementary education has been introduced. Seven hundred and fifty thousand children attend the 7,735 elementary and secondary schools. The Kazakh State University and the 23 other schools of higher learning have an enrolment of 10,000 students. The Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh S.S.R. co-ordinates the work of 20 scientific research institutes employing more than 1,200 scientific workers. Newspapers, books and magazines are published in the Kazakh language. The total printing of the books published in 10 years—from 1937 to 1946—constituted 54,600,000 copies. The works of the great Russian classics—Pushkin, Tolstoy, Gogol and Gorky—have been translated into the Kazakh language. This country that had no theatrical art now has 43 theatres, including the Kazakh Academic Theatre of the Drama, the State Academic Theatre of Opera and Ballet, the Russian Drama Theatre and the Russian Opera Theatre.

The women of Kazakhstan, who now have equal access with men to education, work in all branches of industry, agriculture, medicine, education, etc. Many of them occupy leading posts in the local and republican government bodies.

Hundreds of thousands of Kazakhs fought in the ranks of the Soviet Army, defending the honour and independence of their country. For their heroism in the struggle against the fascist hordes, 330 sons of Kazakhstan, 90 of them Kazakhs, were awarded the high title of Hero of the Soviet Union, while 57,000 received other decorations.

During the Patriotic War the Kazakh S.S.R. served as a mighty source of supplies for the industry and the front, providing the most important strategic raw materials—non-ferrous and rare metals, manganese, coal, gasoline and foodstuffs, including meat, cereals, etc. The collective farms of Kazakhstan helped the districts liberated from the German fascist invaders by sending them more than 500,000 head of cattle.

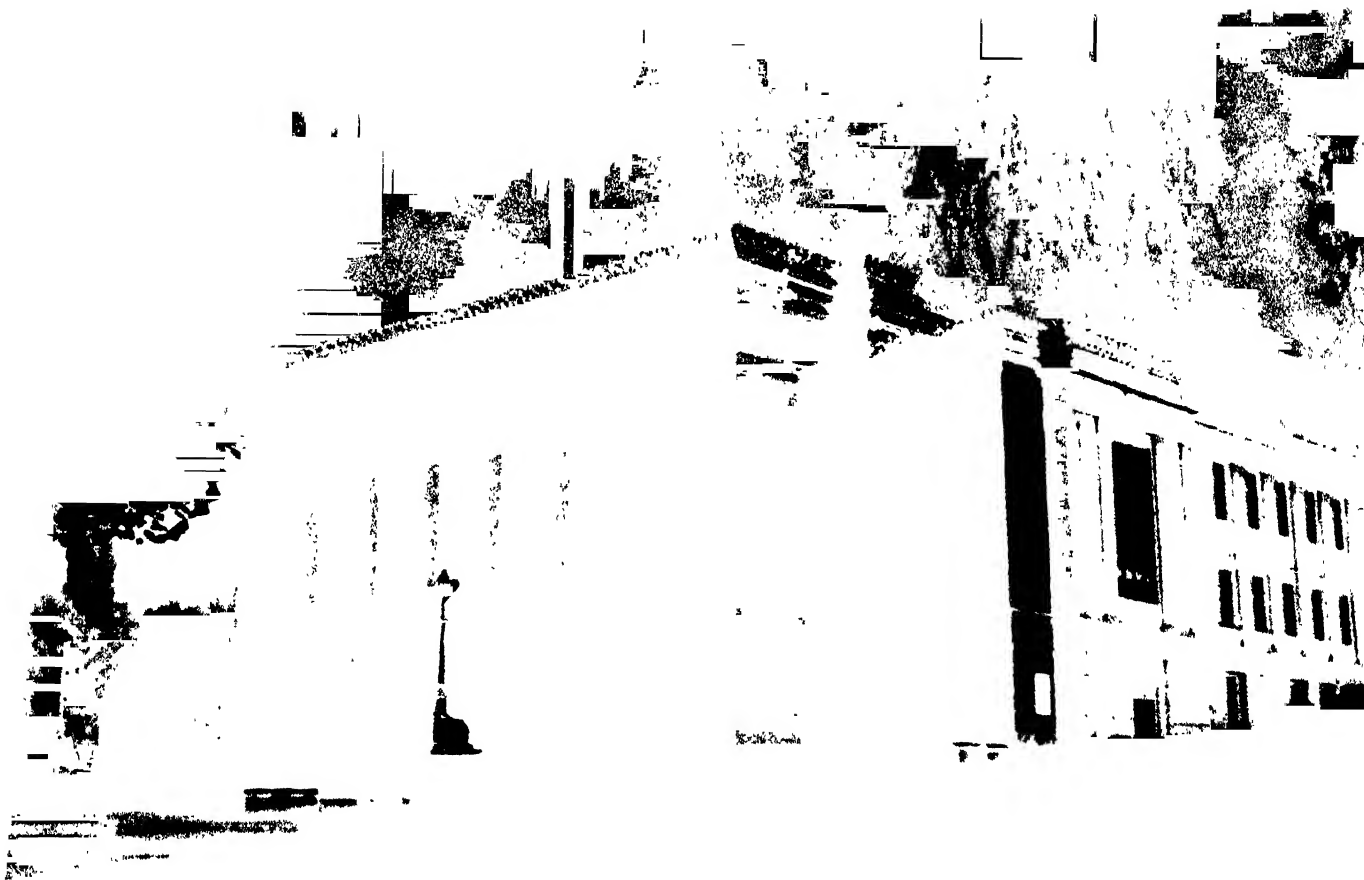
The huge sum of 8,800,000,000 rubles will be invested in the national economy of the republic during the period of 1946-50, according to the new Stalin Five-Year Plan. In 1950 the output of the republic's industry will be more than double that of 1940. In particular, in 1950 the output of electric power will be increased to 1,810,000,000 kwh, that of crude copper will exceed the 1940 level by 160 per cent, of lead-smelting by 30 per cent and of rare metals-smelting by 300 per cent. The output of oil will be enlarged by 75 per cent and will amount to 1,200,000 tons, the coal output will reach 16,400,000 tons. Construction of a large agricultural machinery plant will be completed in Akmolinsk. During the five years, 956 kilometres of new railway lines, a considerable part of which will be electrified, will be put in operation and 807 kilometres of second tracks will be laid.

The food industry will be given extensive development. Eight new meat packing and refrigerating plants, 200 creameries, two milk evaporating and condensing plants, a champagne distillery and many other enterprises will be built.

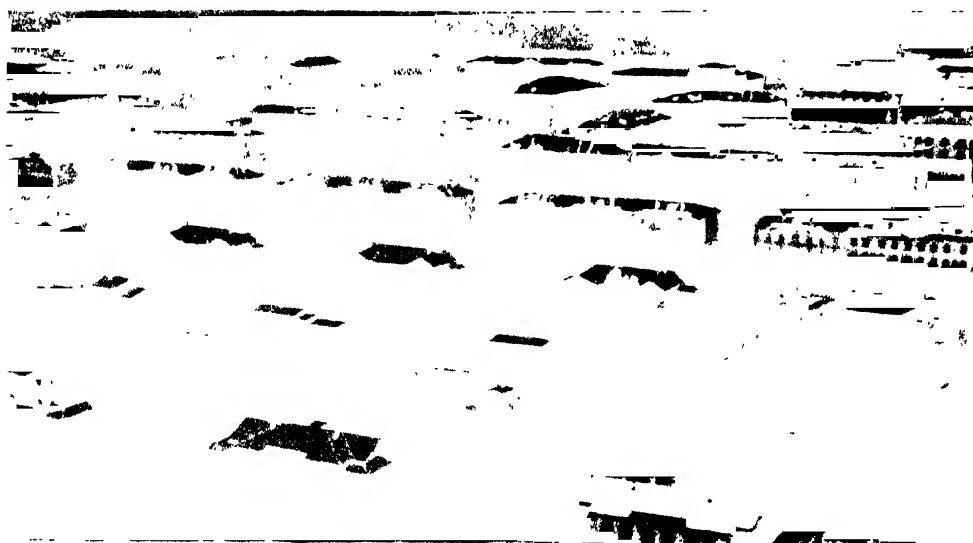
The agriculture of the republic will make further progress. The number of cattle on the state and collective farms will exceed 25,000,000 head.

The cultivated areas will be increased by nearly 500,000 hectares over the 1940 figure. Construction of the big Kzyl-Orda Dam on the Syr Darya will be completed, making it possible to increase the irrigated areas by 120,000 hectares. The culture of the Kazakh people will rise to a new, even higher level. The network of schools and universities will be expanded, more clubs, libraries and cinemas will be built and the network of medical institutions extended.

Having successfully fulfilled the plan for the development of the national economy in 1946, the Kazakh people are confidently forging ahead toward a happy future.



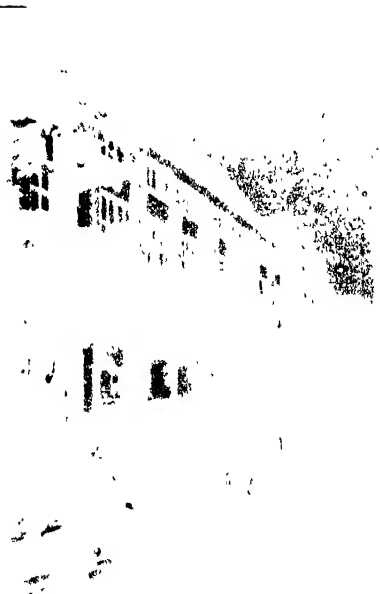
ABAI STATE THEATRE OF OPERA AND BALLET IN ALMA-ATA, CAPITAL OF THE KAZAKH S.S.R.



KARAGANDA—CITY OF BLACK DIAMONDS. ONLY RECENTLY THIS WAS THE BORDER OF THE HUGE "BARREN STEPPE" DESERT



Kirov Street, Alma-Ata



Mausoleum of the bard Jambul
Jabayev in the latter's native village
of Er-Nazar



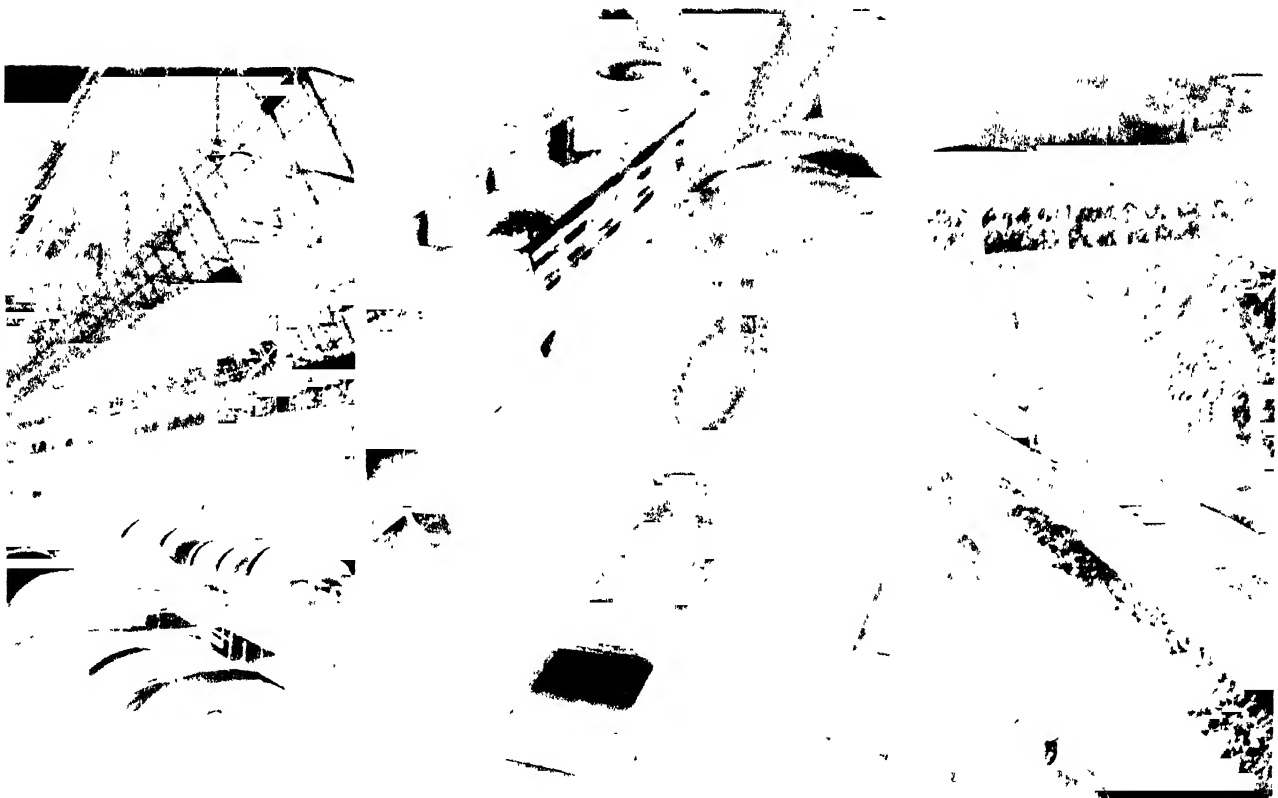
Erzhanov Kariboz, M. Sc., geologist, ex-
perimenting with material brought in by an
expedition. Geological Institute of the
Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh S.S.R.



REHEARSAL ON TWO PIANOS AT THE KAZAKH STATE CONSERVATORY, ALMA-ATA



A MOUNTAIN PASTURE IN KAZAKHSTAN



A workshop in the Balkhash
Copper-Smelting Plant, 1946

Pouring copper into moulds at the Balkhash
Copper-Smelting Plant

The Kounrad Copper Mine near
Lake Balkhash, 1945



JAMBUL JABAYEV

(1846-1945)

JAMBUL WAS BORN at a time when his people, the Kazakhs, still lived a mediaeval patriarchal life.

He possessed a sonorous voice and at an early age learned to play the *dombra*, the national instrument of his people. At the age of fourteen the boy left his father's *yurta* to become an *akyn*, a folk bard who improvises his own verses.

Although Jambul never learned to read or write, he had one of the best poetic educations of the bards of Central Asia. He not only knew by heart all the Kazakh poetry that had been composed before his time but he also knew the whole of the *Manas*, the Kirghiz epic, by heart; he knew the Persian poem *Shah Nameh* and tales from the *Arabian Nights Entertainments*. The synthesis of Central Asian traditions with those of Persia and Arabia made his verses unusually vivid, brilliant and extremely precise.

The great power of the *akyn*, however, was not only due to his superb mastery. In contests of bards Jambul was invariably the victor selected by the audience not merely because his rhymes were more numerous than those of his opponents. The keen political content, the profundity of the national spirit in his songs and their tremendous breadth of vision captivated his audiences.

In his songs Jambul appealed for the unity of the Kazakh tribes; he was ruthless in his ridicule of the *bey*s and in his fearless exposure of their cruelty and avarice. The *bey*s in turn persecuted Jambul for his songs. Tormented by persecution and privation, he was forced to silence.

"At the age of fifty-five," he says of himself, "things were very bad. . . . My back was bent like that of an aged eagle, my eyes had grown dim and my voice weak. A staff had replaced the

dombra in my hands. A narrow bed took the place of the wide steppes. The fire in me died, I was powerless to sing worthy songs. . . ."

Thus he spent fifteen years.

"When I reached the age of three score years and ten I saw the dawn of a new life . . . I heard the name of the *bатыр* (legendary hero) Lenin. . . . And I began to sing like a youth whose years total no more than a score."

The Great October Revolution was of a scope greater than the bard's boldest dreams, it helped all the Kazakh tribes unite to form a nation. Kazakhstan became a Soviet Republic; this was an historical development that Jambul felt with especial keenness.

The folk bard of Kazakhstan composed verses in response to all the events that took place in the country. He wrote lyrics, *Ala Tau*, *Lullaby*; epics, *My Country*, *Voroshilov*; legendary poems, *Utegen*, *the Hero*; collective-farm songs (Jambul was one of the first to join a collective farm), *Grain*; industrial songs dealing with the construction work under the Five-Year Plans, *Turksib*; improvised satires branding the enemies of the people, heroic ballads composed during the battles of Stalingrad, Moscow and Leningrad. The finest songs composed by Jambul were those dedicated to the leaders of the Soviet people—Vladimir Lenin, who "made warriors out of slaves and showed us greatness in our days," and Joseph Stalin, who led the Soviet people to victory.

On May 9, 1945, Jambul Jabayev composed his last song about Stalin, the well-beloved, a song in honour of victory over fascist Germany.

In 1941 the *akyn* was awarded a Stalin Prize for his poetry.

SEPTEMBER

- SEPTEMBER 3, 1883** *Ivan Turgenev, great Russian author, died.*
- SEPTEMBER 3** *Victory over Japan Day.*
- SEPTEMBER 7, 1947** *Celebration of the Octocentennial (1147-1947) of Moscow, capital of the U.S.S.R. The Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R., conferring the Order of Lenin on Moscow, and J. V. Stalin's Greetings, published.*
- SEPTEMBER 7, 1947** *135th anniversary of the Battle of Borodino between Napoleon's army and the Russian troops.*
- SEPTEMBER 8, 1943** *Units of Soviet Army completely liberated Donetz Coal Basin from German invaders.*
- SEPTEMBER 11, 1877** *Birth of Felix Dzerzhinsky, one of the prominent leaders of the Communist Party and the Soviet state.*
- SEPTEMBER 12, 1947** *Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. instituting the "For the Restoration of the Coal Mines of Donbas" Medal, published.*
- SEPTEMBER 14** *Tankmen's Day.*
- SEPTEMBER 17, 1857** *Birth of Konstantin Tsiolkovsky, outstanding Russian scientist and talented designer of dirigibles.*
- SEPTEMBER 22, 1944** *Units of Soviet Army liberated Tallinn, capital of Estonian S.S.R., from German invaders.*
- SEPTEMBER 24, 1946** *Interview given by J. V. Stalin to Alexander Werth, Moscow correspondent of Sunday Times, published.*
- SEPTEMBER 26, 1847** *Birth of Pavel Yablochkov, outstanding Russian electrical engineer and inventor.*
- SEPTEMBER 27, 1892** *The Tretyakov State Picture Gallery opened in Moscow.*
- SEPTEMBER 29, 1930** *Ilya Repin, great Russian painter, died.*
- SEPTEMBER 29, 1904** *Birth of Nikolai Ostrovsky, famous Soviet author.*



BEGINNING OF THE TERM AT SCHOOL No. 170, SVERDLOV DISTRICT, MOSCOW, 1946



2015 RELEASE UNDER E.O. 14176

IVAN TURGENEV

(1818-1883)

IVAN SERGEYEVICH TURGENEV, the son of a Russian landowner, was born in the town of Orel. He spent his childhood on the family estate at Spasskoye in the gubernia of Orel, and his youth at the universities of Moscow and Berlin.

Turgenev's first literary venture was a critical article for the press; afterward he won recognition as a poet. Eventually he tried his hand at plays and essays, and finally started writing novels which brought him literary fame. His first effort at prose produced the famous *Papers of a Sportsman*.

The book achieved a remarkable success. The author selected as his main theme one of the most controversial topics of his day—the problem of serfdom. "I could not breathe the same air, abide in the same place with what I had come to hate . . ." wrote Turgenev. "I had to put as much distance as possible between myself and my enemy in order the more strongly to fall upon him. In my eyes that enemy wore a definite image, bore a definite name, and that name was serfdom. That name personified to me everything that I had resolved to fight till the last breath and with which I had sworn never to be reconciled. . . ."

The *Papers of a Sportsman* evoked an enthusiastic response both in literary circles and among the reading public at large. The book was received by contemporaries as "a battle-fire against the traditional aspects of life among the landed gentry." These exquisite sketches, breathing poetic beauty and a deep love of country, and pervaded by keen sympathy for the oppressed, furnish a vivid picture of monstrous landlord despotism while at the same time revealing the slumbering soul of a people rich with infinite promise.

The author's creative genius developed on the basis of a realistic style, a simplicity and clarity of treatment of a theme that evoked a lively response among his contemporaries, and won him many friends and admirers, much to the discomfort of the tsarist censorship whose avowed object was to safeguard the Russian people against seditious ideas.

For an article written on the occasion of the death of the Russian writer Nikolai Gogol, Turgenev was arrested and banished to Spasskoye for a year and half. Upon his return from exile (in December 1853) Turgenev's powers as a writer matured to their full extent. During these years he produced his most important works, *Rudin* (1856), *A Nest of the Gentry* (1859), *On the Eve* (1860), *Fathers and Sons* (1862) and other novels.

A Nest of the Gentry, *Fathers and Sons* and *On the Eve* were Turgenev's supreme achievements as a novelist. The salient feature of his works is their social topicality.

The author's keen sense of perception is revealed in the fact that he chose topical themes of general interest and portrayed types of people who had barely yet made their appearance in contemporary society. Between *Rudin*, his first novel, and *Virgin Soil*, his last, Turgenev consistently depicted the radical changes that were taking place in Russian public life.

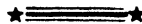
The heroes of his first two novels, *Rudin* and *Lavretsky*, were portrayed as types of the "superfluous people" from among the nobility who aspired to do things but were ineffectual in their strivings, whereas in his novels *On the Eve* and *Fathers and Sons* he gave, for the first time in Russian literature, character studies of "new people" such as Insarov, the champion of his native Bulgaria's liberty, and Bazarov, the intellectual and revolutionary, who had come to take the place of his heroes from the nobility.

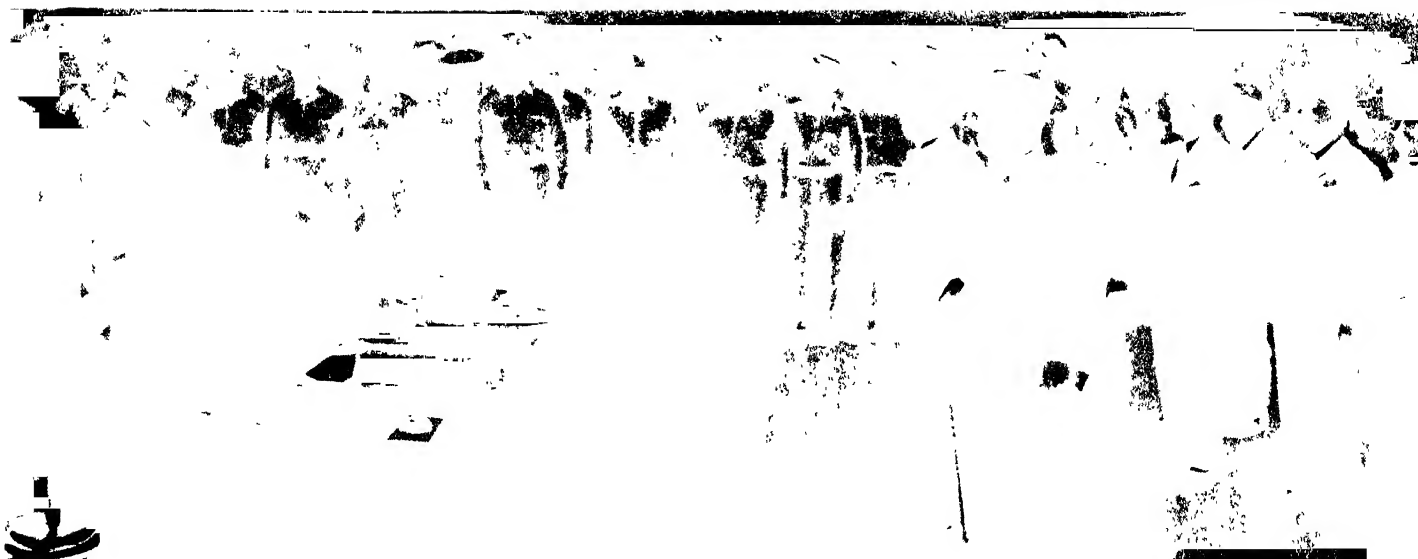
In the 'sixties, at a time when Russia was living through a sharp division of social and political forces, Ivan Turgenev with his moderate liberal ideals found himself in a camp alien to the Russian revolutionary democrats Chernyshevsky and Dobrolyubov, a fact which influenced his further works and explains the ideological weakness of such works as *Smoke* and *Virgin Soil*.

Turgenev's novels, sketches and stories are written in a vivid and extraordinarily facile and rich language. He is one of the world's finest masters of style. The writings of Turgenev have been translated into most foreign languages and have long since become the acquisition of world literature. The influence of Turgenev on world literature, especially on such celebrated French writers as George Sand, Flaubert, Zola, the Goncourt brothers, Daudet, Mérimée and Maupassant, is too well known to require comment.

Since 1856 Turgenev spent most of his time abroad, where he acted as a vigorous medium between Russian writers and those in other countries. Goncourt's diary shows Turgenev to have been for French literary circles a sort of arbiter on questions bearing both on literature and the proper understanding of the epoch, not to mention that he helped many people in Western Europe to obtain a true understanding of Russia. He took an active part in preparing French and other translations of works by Pushkin, Gogol, Krylov, Lermontov, Tolstoy, Pisemsky, Saltykov-Shchedrin.

Ivan Turgenev is one of the most popular and beloved of Russian writers. A superlative master of language, an original and brilliant artist, he created works representing a high standard of Russian realistic art.





ACT OF CAPITULATION SIGNED BY JAPAN ON BOARD THE AMERICAN BATTLESHIP "MISSOURI." LIEUTENANT-GENERAL DEREVYANKO, REPRESENTATIVE OF THE U.S.S.R., IS SEEN SIGNING THE ACT



Japanese soldiers surrendering their arms to the Soviet Army (Mukden region)

STALIN'S ADDRESS TO THE PEOPLE

September 2, 1945

**COMRADES!
FELLOW COUNTRYMEN AND COUNTRYWOMEN!**

Today, September 2, political and military representatives of Japan signed an act of unconditional surrender. Utterly defeated on sea and land, and completely surrounded by the armed forces of the United Nations, Japan has admitted defeat and has laid down her arms.

Two hotbeds of world fascism and world aggression had been formed on the eve of the present World War: Germany in the West and Japan in the East. It was they who unleashed the Second World War. It was they who brought mankind and civilization to the brink of doom. The hotbed of world aggression in the West was destroyed four months ago and, as a result, Germany was forced to capitulate. Four months later the hotbed of aggression in the East was destroyed and, as a result, Japan, Germany's principal ally, was also compelled to sign an act of capitulation.

This signifies the end of the Second World War.

Now we can say that the conditions necessary for peace all over the world have been gained.

It must be observed that the Japanese aggressors inflicted damage not only on our Allies—China, the United States of America and Great Britain. They also inflicted extremely grave damage on our country. That is why we have a separate account to settle with Japan.

Japan commenced her aggression against our country as far back as 1904, during the Russo-Japanese war. As we know, in February 1904, when negotiations between Japan and Russia were still proceeding, Japan, taking advantage of the weakness of the tsarist government, suddenly and perfidiously, without declaring war, fell upon our country and attacked the Russian Fleet in the region of Port Arthur with the object of putting a number of Russian warships out of action and thereby creating an advantageous position for her fleet. She did, indeed, put out of action three Russian first-class warships. It is characteristic that thirty-seven years later Japan played exactly the same perfidious trick against the United States when, in 1941, she attacked the United States naval base in Pearl Harbour and put a number of American battle-ships out of action. As we know, in the war against Japan, Russia was defeated. Japan took advantage of the defeat of tsarist Russia to seize from Russia the southern part of Sakhalin and establish herself on the Kuril Islands, thereby putting the lock on all our country's outlets to the ocean in the East, which meant also all outlets to the ports of Soviet Kamchatka and Soviet Chukotka. It was obvious that Japan was aiming to deprive Russia of the whole of her Far East.

But this does not exhaust the list of Japan's aggressive operations against our country. In 1918, after the Soviet system was established in our country, Japan, taking advan-

tage of the hostility then displayed towards the Land of Soviets by Great Britain, France and the United States, and leaning upon them, again attacked our country, occupied the Far East and for four years tormented our people and looted the Soviet Far East.

Nor is this all. In 1938 Japan attacked our country again, in the region of Lake Hasan, near Vladivostok, with the object of surrounding Vladivostok; and in the following year Japan repeated her attack in another place, in the region of the Mongolian People's Republic, near Khalkhin-gol, with the object of breaking into Soviet territory, severing our Siberian Railway and cutting off the Far East from Russia.

True, Japan's attacks in the regions of Hasan and Khalkhin-gol were liquidated by the Soviet troops, to the extreme humiliation of the Japanese. Japanese military intervention in 1918-22 was liquidated with equal success and the Japanese invaders were expelled from our Far Eastern regions. But the defeat of the Russian troops in 1904 during the Russo-Japanese war left bitter memories in the minds of our people. It lay like a black stain upon our country. Our people believed in and waited for the day when Japan would be defeated and the stain would be wiped out. We of the older generation waited for this day for forty years, and now this day has arrived. Today Japan admitted defeat and signed an act of unconditional surrender.

This means that the southern part of Sakhalin and the Kuril Islands revert to the Soviet Union and henceforth will serve not as a barrier between the Soviet Union and the ocean and a base for Japanese attack upon our Far East but as a direct means of communication between the Soviet Union and the ocean and a base for the defence of our country against Japanese aggression.

Our Soviet people spared neither strength nor labour for the sake of victory. We experienced extremely hard years. But now every one of us can say: We have won. Henceforth we can regard our country as being free from the menace of German invasion in the West and of Japanese invasion in the East. The long awaited peace for the peoples of all the world has come.

I congratulate you, my dear fellow countrymen and countrywomen, on this great victory, on the successful termination of the war, and on the ushering in of peace all over the world!

Glory to the armed forces of the Soviet Union, the United States of America, China and Great Britain which achieved victory over Japan!

Glory to our Far Eastern troops and our Pacific Fleet, which upheld the honour and dignity of our country!

Glory to our great people, the victor people!

Eternal glory to the heroes who fell fighting for the honour and victory of our country!

May our country prosper and flourish!



SALUTE IN MOSCOW IN HONOUR OF THE CAPITAL'S 800TH ANNIVERSARY

**DECREE OF THE PRESIDIUM OF THE SUPREME SOVIET
OF THE U.S.S.R.
ON THE AWARD OF THE ORDER OF LENIN TO THE CITY OF MOSCOW**

FOR THE OUTSTANDING SERVICES THE WORKING PEOPLE OF MOSCOW HAVE RENDERED OUR COUNTRY, FOR THE COURAGE AND HEROISM THEY DISPLAYED IN THE STRUGGLE AGAINST THE GERMAN INVADERS, FOR THE SUCCESSES THEY HAVE ACHIEVED IN DEVELOPING INDUSTRY AND CULTURE AND IN CARRYING OUT THE GENERAL PLAN OF RECONSTRUCTION OF THE CITY, AND ON THE OCCASION OF THE 800TH ANNIVERSARY OF THE CITY OF MOSCOW, THE ORDER OF LENIN IS CONFERRED ON MOSCOW, THE CAPITAL OF THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

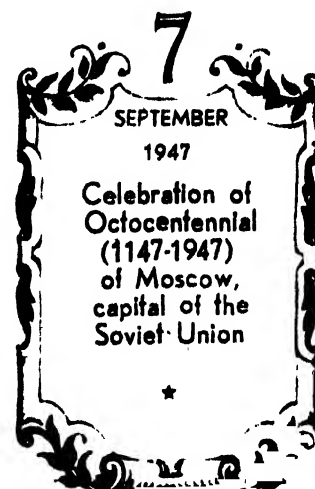
Signed:

N. SHVERNIK

President of the Presidium of the Supreme
Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

A. GORKIN

Secretary of the Presidium of the Supreme
Soviet of the U.S.S.R.



MESSAGE OF GREETINGS FROM J. V. STALIN

Greetings to Moscow, the capital of our Country, on its 800th anniversary.

The entire country is today celebrating this significant day. It is celebrating it not formally, but with feelings of love and reverence, because of the great services Moscow has rendered our Country.

The services which Moscow has rendered are not only that it thrice in the course of the history of our Country liberated her from foreign oppression—from the Mongolian yoke, from Polish-Lithuanian invasion and from French incursion. The service Moscow rendered is primarily that it became the basis for uniting disunited Rūs in a single state, with a single government and a single leadership. No country in the world can count on preserving its independence, on real economic and cultural growth, if it has not succeeded in liberating itself from feudal disunity and strife among princes. Only a country which is united in a single centralized state can count on the possibility of real cultural and economic growth, on the possibility of firmly establishing its independence. The historic service which Moscow rendered is that it has been and remains the basis and the initiator in the creation of a centralized state in Rūs.

But this is not the only service that Moscow has rendered our Country. After Moscow, by the will of our great Lenin, was again proclaimed the capital of our Country, it became the banner bearer of the new, Soviet epoch.

Moscow is today not only the inspirer in the building of the new, Soviet social and economic order, which substituted the rule of labour for the rule of capital and rejected the exploitation of man by man. Moscow is also the herald of the movement for the liberation of toiling mankind from capitalist slavery.

Moscow is today not only the inspirer in the building of the new, Soviet democracy, which rejects all, direct or indirect, inequality of citizens, sexes, races and nations, and ensures the right to work and the right to equal pay for equal work. Moscow is also the banner of the struggle which all the

working people in the world, all the oppressed races and nations, are waging to liberate themselves from the rule of plutocracy and imperialism. There can be no doubt that without this policy Moscow could not have become the centre of organization of the friendship of nations and of their fraternal co-operation in our multi-national state.

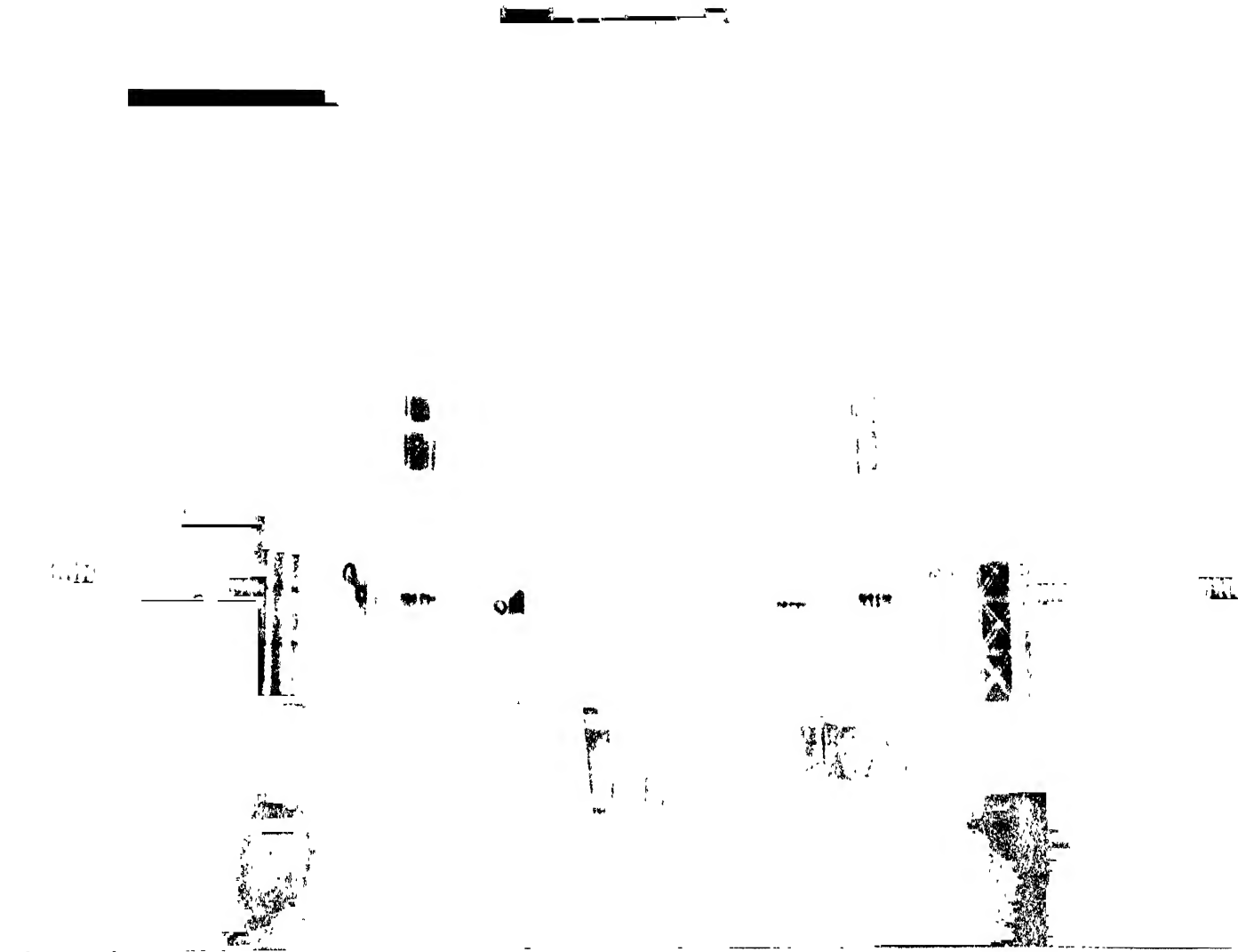
Moscow is today not only the initiator in the building of the new way of life of the working people of the capital, a life free from want and wretchedness suffered by millions of poor and unemployed. Moscow is also a model for all the capitals in the world in this respect. One of the gravest sores of the large capitals of countries in Europe, Asia and America are the slums in which millions of impoverished working people are doomed to wretchedness and a slow and painful death. The service which Moscow has rendered is that it completely abolished these slums and gave the working people the opportunity to move out of their cellars and hovels into the apartments and houses of the bourgeoisie and into the new comfortable houses which have been built by the Soviet authorities.

Lastly, the service Moscow renders is that it is the herald of the struggle for durable peace and friendship among the nations, the herald of the struggle against the incendiaries of a new war. For the imperialists, war is the most profitable undertaking. It is not surprising that the agents of imperialism are trying, in one way or another, to provoke a new war. The service which Moscow renders is that it unceasingly exposes the incendiaries of a new war and rallies around the banner of peace all the peace-loving nations. It is common knowledge that the peace-loving nations look with hope to Moscow as the capital of the great peace-loving power and as a mighty bulwark of peace.

It is because of these services that our Country is today celebrating the 800th anniversary of Moscow with such love and reverence for her capital.

Long live our mighty, beloved, Soviet, Socialist Moscow!

J. STALIN



GRANOVITAYA PALATA, MOSCOW KREMLIN

NAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR



Left: A model of the monument to Yuri Dolgoruki by S. M. Orlov, Stalin Prize Winner



Right: The dedication of the site for a monument to the founder of Moscow, Yuri Dolgoruki, on Soviet Square, Moscow

MOSCOW—THE CAPITAL OF THE U.S.S.R.

IN THE SPRING of 1918 the seat of the Soviet government was transferred from Petrograd to Moscow. At present Moscow is the capital of the U.S.S.R. and of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic. The highest organs of state power and state administration of the U.S.S.R. are in Moscow: the Supreme Soviet, the Council of Ministers, the Ministries, and the Supreme Court. The Central Committee of the All-Union Communist Party (Bolsheviks) has its headquarters in Moscow.

Moscow is the heart of the Soviet country, the throbbing heart of the Soviet people, its glory and its pride. Here the remains of Lenin, the founder of the Soviet state, the organizer and leader of the Bolshevik Party, lie in the Mausoleum. Here Generalissimo Stalin, the Chairman of the Council of Ministers, the man who is continuing the work of Lenin, lives and works.

Moscow was the nation's military headquarters during the Great Patriotic War. From here the State Council for Defence, headed by Joseph Stalin, directed the military operations on the far-flung fronts of the Great Patriotic War. Here, under the walls of Moscow, the Soviet Army inflicted the first serious defeat on the fascist troops, thus dispelling the myth of the invincibility of the Hitlerite army.

Today, Moscow is one of the biggest and most beautiful cities in the world. Its growth has been especially rapid in the Soviet period. From a city with an area of 175 square kilometres and a population of 1,665,000 in 1913, Moscow had grown to 800 square kilometres with a population of 4,137,000 by 1941.

A General Plan for the Reconstruction of Moscow was drawn up in 1935, and, as a result of the extensive work carried out in accordance with this plan, the appearance of the city was completely changed. Dozens of wide avenues and spacious squares have replaced the old crooked alleys; thousands of new houses with a total floor space of more than 6,000,000 square metres were built during the period of the Stalin Five-Year Plans. The city's transport system was modernized and now includes taxis, omnibuses, trolleybuses, trams and the best subway in the world, with a total passenger-carrying capacity about ten times the pre-revolutionary figure. In 1937, when the Moscow Canal was completed, Moscow was linked with three seas—the White, Baltic and Caspian—by a direct water route.

The 1946-50 plan for the development of Moscow's economy was a big step taken towards completing the General Plan for reconstructing the city.

It is sufficient to state that the investments in the city's economy—housing and municipal improvements—will amount to 1,900,000,000 rubles.

All branches of the city economy are being developed. Many streets and squares will be reconstructed and several new bridges built; housing alone will be increased by 3,000,000 square metres of floor space. The transport system will be greatly expanded and by 1950 will be able to carry an annual total of 3,350,000,000 passengers. The fourth subway line will be completed by that time.

Soviet Moscow became a great industrial centre with highly developed engineering, electrical and chemical industries.

In 1913 Moscow enterprises employed a total of 160,000 workers. Old Moscow was rightfully called "the city of cotton goods," as it was chiefly engaged in the manufacture of textiles. The iron, steel and engineering industries of that time accounted for less than 25 per cent of the city's industrial output.

The present output of the Moscow factories in value amounts to 50 per cent more than the industrial output of entire tsarist Russia. The annual output of the Stalin Automobile Plant alone is equal in value to the entire output of Moscow industries in 1913. Hundreds of factories and mills, equipped with the latest technical facilities, were constructed in Moscow under the Soviet rule. These included giant factories like the

Fraser, which is one of the biggest tool-cutting factories in Europe, the *Sharikopodshipnik* (ball-bearing) plant and many others.

The light industry developed rapidly side by side with the engineering and iron and steel industries. The output of the city's textile factories is three times the pre-revolutionary level. The *Paris Commune* footwear factory alone produces as much as all the shoe factories in tsarist Russia. Other enterprises built in Moscow include a huge meat-processing plant and first-class bakeries; clothing and knitted goods industries have been introduced on a large scale.

About a million people are employed in the factories of Moscow today.

Moscow's engineering industry will be most extensively developed under the current Five-Year Plan. The output of machine-tools in 1950 will be 50 per cent more than pre-war; 100,000 trucks will be produced, a 75 per cent increase over the 1940 level.

Moscow is the Soviet Union's greatest scientific and cultural centre.

The scientific institutions located in Moscow include the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R., the Academy of Social Sciences, the Agricultural, Medical, Pedagogical and Architectural Academies; 12,000 scientific workers are engaged in scientific work in the city's numerous research institutions and laboratories.

The Lenin State Public Library, which has 10,000,000 books, is one of the biggest book repositories in the world. Copies of all the books, magazines, pamphlets and newspapers published in the Soviet Union are stored there and the literature of 40 countries of the world is to be found on its shelves. The library issued 4,000,000 books to its readers in 1945.

Moscow publishers issue millions of new books, magazines and newspapers. 500,000,000 books are printed annually—13 times more than before the revolution.

There are dozens of museums in Moscow: among them the Lenin Museum, the Museum of the Revolution, the Museum of History, the Polytechnical Museum, the Pushkin Museum of Fine Arts, and the famous Tretyakov State Picture Gallery which contains the best examples of the Russian fine arts and outstanding works by Soviet artists.

The Moscow theatres are world famous. Apart from the Bolshoi, Maly, and Art theatres, there are dozens of newer theatres which were built up in Soviet times.

Soviet Moscow is a city of students.

In 1913, Moscow had 15 schools of higher education with 32,000 students. Under Soviet power the number of colleges was increased to about 90 and in 1941 there were 95,000 students. The students include representatives of almost all the peoples of the U.S.S.R. There are undergraduates of fifty different nationalities at Moscow State University alone.

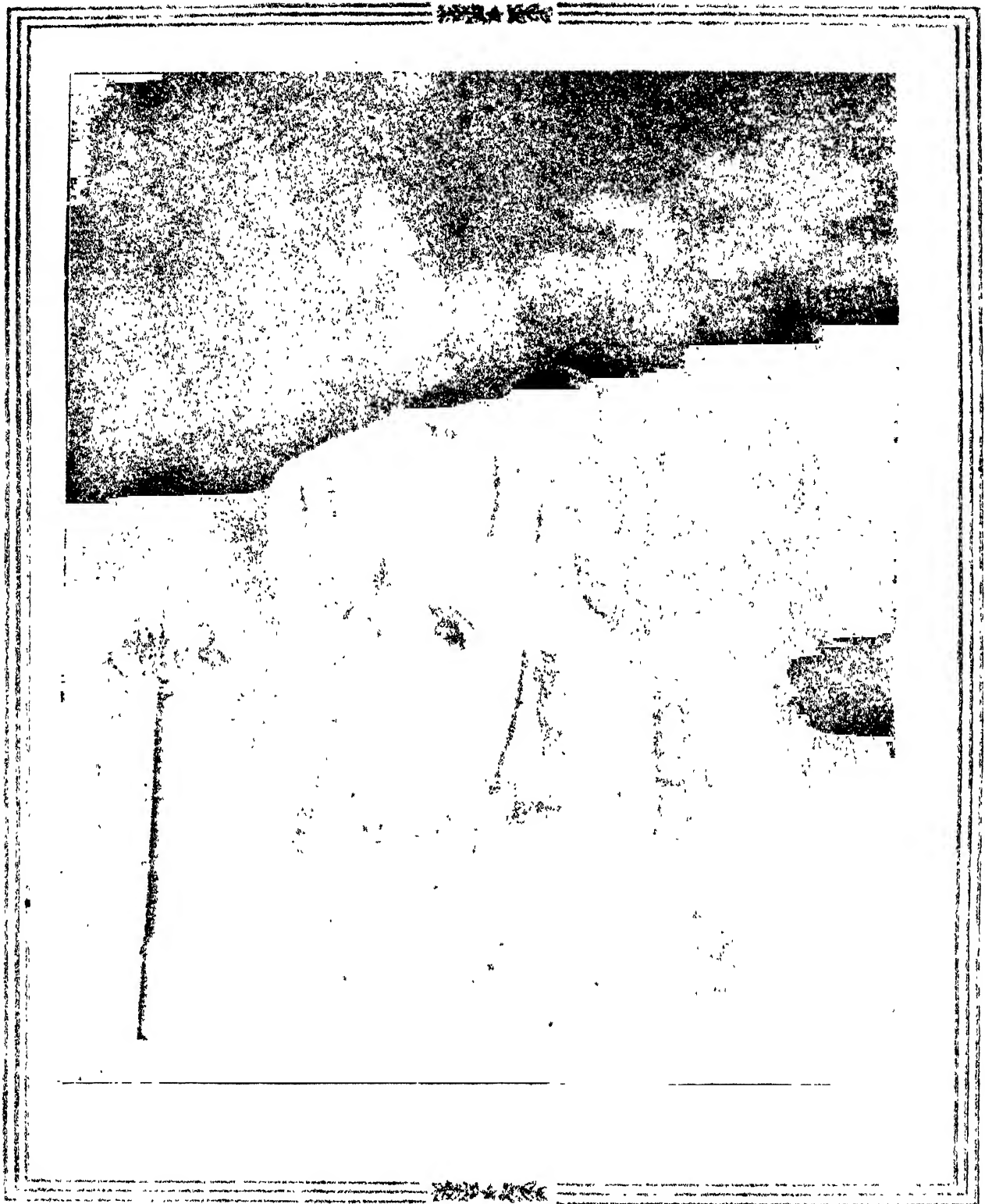
In 1913 there were 122,000 children in the city's primary and secondary schools. Now there are 600,000 pupils in the secondary schools alone. As many as 393 new schools were opened between 1934 and 1940.

There are many cinemas in the city where, in addition to Soviet films, the best foreign films are demonstrated. There are also cinemas which show only newsreels, scientific, and documentary films.

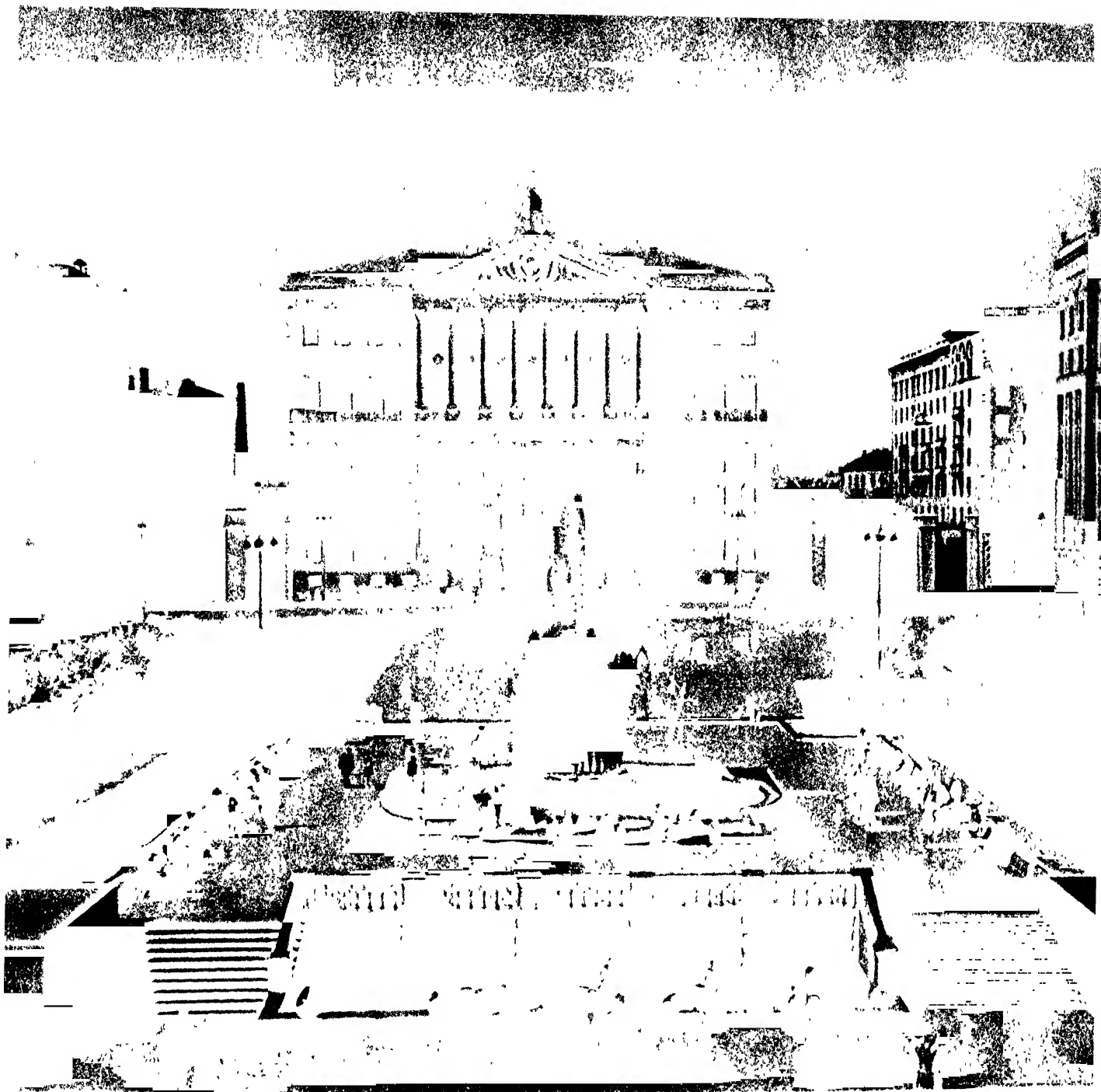
Moscow is the country's biggest sports centre.

There are scores of stadiums and thousands of sports grounds in the capital. The "Dynamo" Stadium, which is the biggest in Moscow, has a seating capacity for 90,000 spectators. Every sporting event of importance attracts large crowds of spectators.

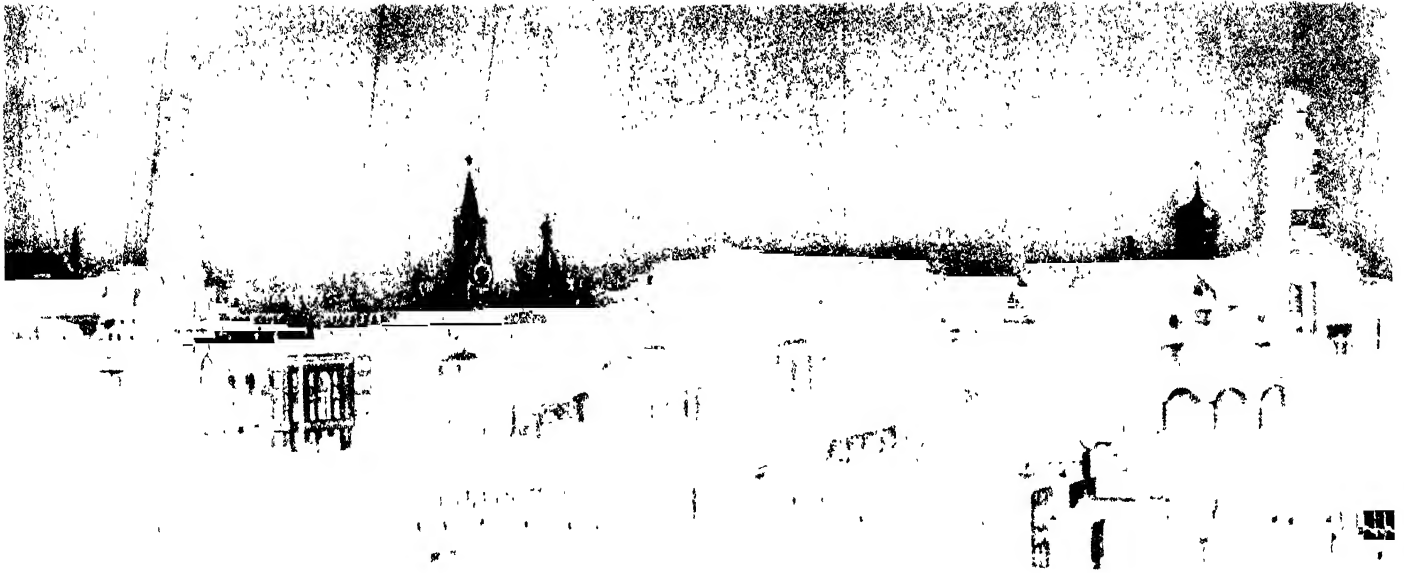
The huge and beautiful city is a beehive of activity. Just as Moscow, in the distant past, was the cradle of the Russian national state, so today it embodies the best efforts and aspirations of the many millions of Soviet people.



THE LENIN MONUMENT ON SOVIET SQUARE, MOSCOW



THE MOSCOW SOVIET



DAYAB SALAR, JUNG THERAPY

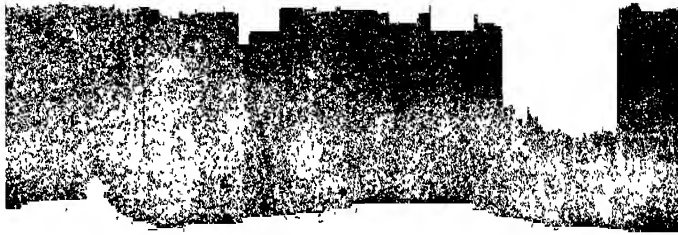


THE KREMLIN

VIEWS OF



PUSHKIN SQUARE



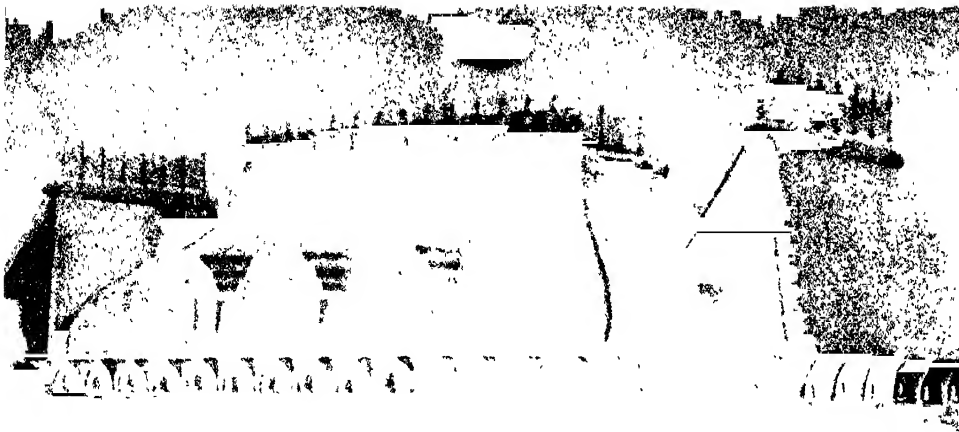
MAWAB SALAR JUNG PANAQUM



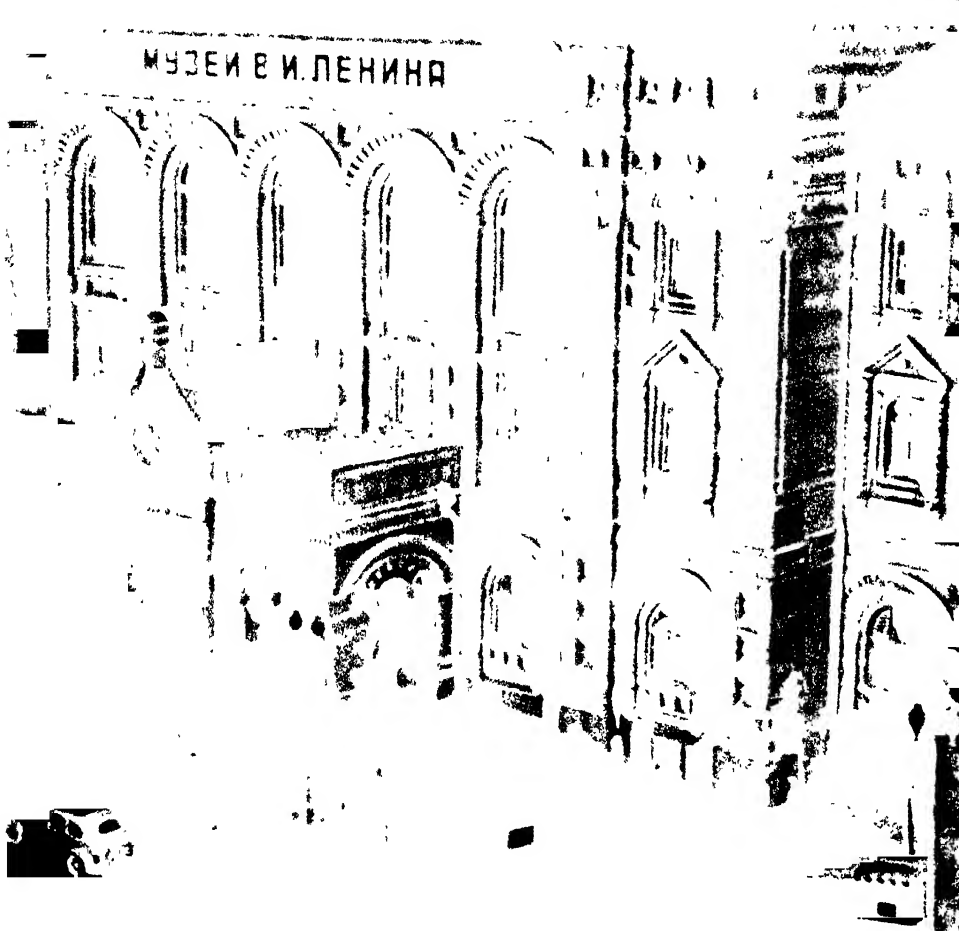
M O S C O W



CORKY STREET



LENIN MUSEUM

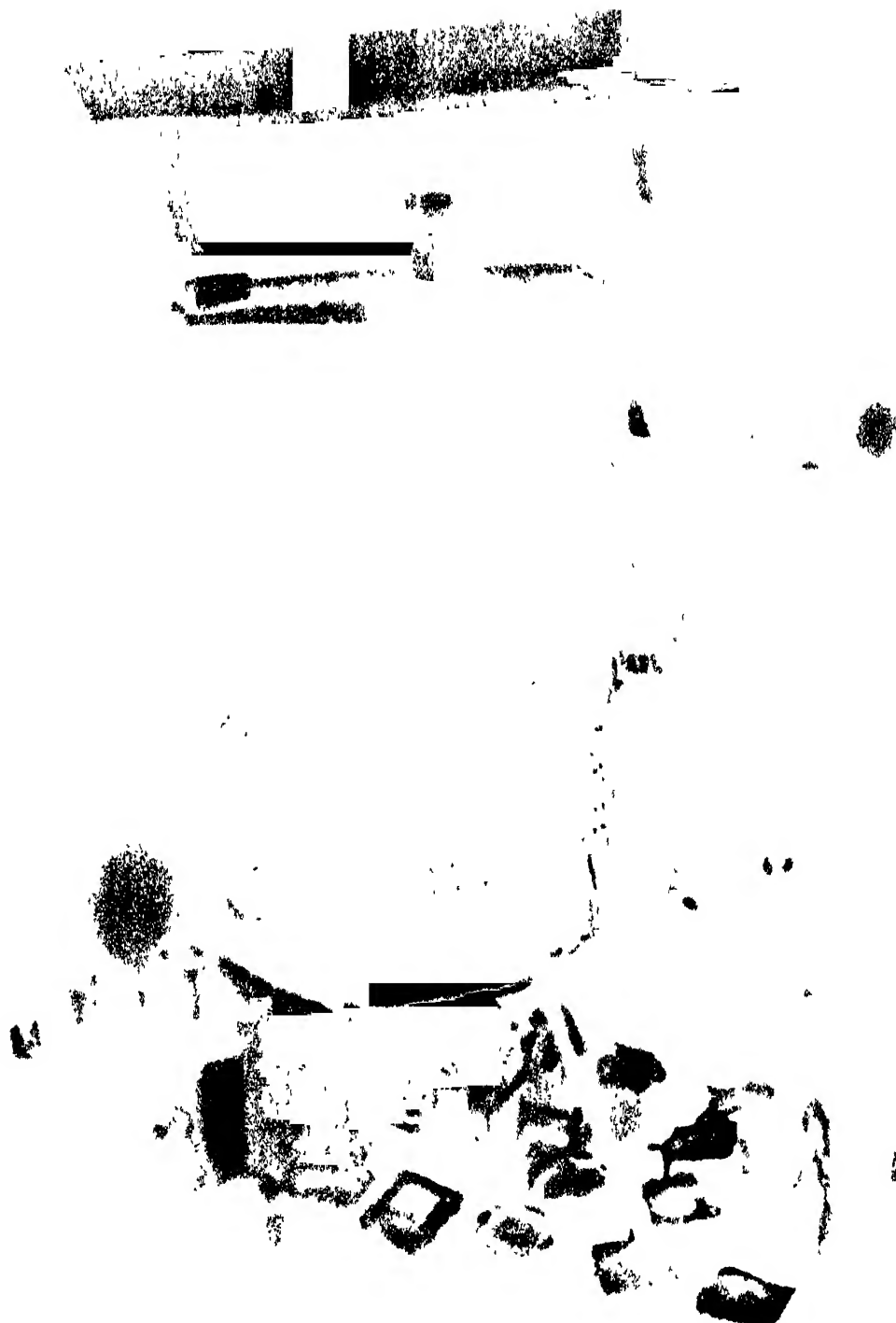


Below, left:
**STATE ACADEMIC BOLSHOI
THEATRE OF THE U.S.S.R.**



Below:
**ACADEMY OF SCIENCES
OF THE U.S.S.R.**

OPEN-HEARTH FURNACE
SHOP OF THE SICKLE
AND HAMMER FACTORY



ASSEMBLY WORKSHOP OF
THE STALIN AUTOMOBILE
PLANT



BALLROOM SCENE IN THE OPERA *EUGENE ONEGIN*, STAGED AT THE BOLSHOI THEATRE.
1945 PRODUCTION

THE STATE ACADEMIC BOLSHOI THEATRE OF THE U.S.S.R.

THE IMPRESSIVE BUILDING which houses the Bolshoi Theatre stands on Sverdlov Square in the very heart of the Soviet capital. One of Moscow's architectural gems, it is fronted by eight graceful columns and has a sculptural group above the portico representing Apollo driving his chariot.

Despite its size the Bolshoi Theatre does not seem massive, for it has elegant and well-proportioned lines. The same harmony of line is found inside the building. The main hall, which has a seating capacity of more than 2,000, is considered one of the most beautiful auditoriums in the world. Red velvet upholstery and gilt decorations create an atmosphere of rich splendour. A painting of the Nine Muses covers the ceiling, from which an enormous crystal chandelier is suspended. The great stage, draped with a heavy curtain of gold cloth, is particularly well suited for presenting ballets and operas with large mass scenes.

Two years ago the Bolshoi Theatre celebrated its 120th anniversary. Throughout its history this theatre has played an important part in the development of the Russian opera and ballet. All of Russia's greatest operas have been staged here, and today Russian opera holds a leading place in the repertoire: Glinka's *Ivan Susanin* and *Ruslan and Ludmila*; Chaikovsky's *Eugene Onegin* and *Queen of Spades*; *Prince Igor* by Borodin; *Snow-Maiden*, and *Tale of the Tear Sultan* by Rimsky-Korsakov, and Moussorgsky's *Boris Godunov*.

The repertoire also includes such world-famous operas as Bizet's *Carmen* and Rossini's *William Tell*, and the Georgian opera *Absalom and Eteri*, by Paliashvili.

The Affiliated Bolshoi Theatre, which is located near the main building, stages operas by Verdi, Rossini, Dargomyzhsky, Anton Rubinstein, Chaikovsky, Rimsky-Korsakov and other Russian and foreign composers.

Of the modern Soviet operas, the Bolshoi Theatre has produced *And Quiet Flows the Don* by Dzherzhinsky, based on Sholokhov's novel of the same title, and the Affiliated—Kabalevsky's *Under Fire*, which deals with the heroic defence of Moscow in the autumn of 1941.

Ballets occupy an important place in the repertoires of the Bolshoi and its Affiliated Theatre. Among the classic ballets presented at both theatres are three by Chaikovsky—*Swan Lake*, *The Nutcracker* and *Sleeping Beauty*—Glazunov's *Raimonda*, Adam's *Giselle* and Minkus' *Don Quixote*. A number of new ballets written in Soviet times also figure prominently in the repertoires: *Cinderella* by Prokofiev, Yurovsky's *Crimson Sails*, Asafyev's *Fountain of Bakhchisarai* and *Flames of Paris*, and Gliere's *Red Poppy*, which has been running successfully for years.

Over the years the Bolshoi Theatre has developed into a true academy of the vocal and choreographic arts. The careers of brilliant singers and dancers, conductors and ballet masters, stage decorators and producers are associated

MARINA SEMYONOVA, MERITED ARTIST OF THE R.S.F.S.R. IN THE BALLET SWAN LAKE,
A PRODUCTION OF THE BOLSHOI THEATRE

with its name. At the close of the 19th century the appearance of such stars as the opera singers Fyodor Chaliapin, Leonid Sobinov and Antonina Nezhdanova, and the dancers Ekaterina Geltser and Vassili Tikhomirov brought new vigour to the Bolshoi Theatre. The conductors there at the time were Vyacheslav Souk and the young composer Sergei Rachmaninov, who was just coming into prominence. Alexander Golovin and Konstantin Korovin were doing the stage decorations.

In the Soviet years the art of the Bolshoi Theatre has reached still greater heights. The Soviet government has always devoted special attention to the development of opera and ballet at the Bolshoi. After the October Socialist Revolution in 1917 it was made into a State Academic Theatre.

The new stagings of many of the finest classic operas and ballets at the Bolshoi Theatre in recent years have been marked by a combination of scenic realism and musical art.

Each Bolshoi Theatre production is the result of long and hard work on the part of many people. The theatre has large and gifted opera and ballet companies. Outstanding among the present-day singers are Nadezhda Obukhova, Valeria Barsova, Vera Davydova, Maria Maksakova, Ivan Kozlovsky, Sergei Lemeshev, Pavel Lisitsyan and Mark Reizen. The ballet corps is headed by Galina Ulanova, Marina Semyonova, Olga Lepschinskaya, Alexei Yermolayev, Mikhail

Gabovich and Asaf Messerer. The Bolshoi ballet school, one of the oldest in the world, annually graduates dancers who join the company. The theatre's art director and head conductor of the orchestra is Ari Pazovsky, an eminent musician. Peter Williams, Vladimir Dmitriev and Fyodor Fyodorovsky, all prominent Soviet artists, do the stage decorations.

The Bolshoi Theatre has one of the best orchestras and choruses in the country. It has large workshops that manufacture literally everything that goes into a production, beginning with the properties and ending with the costumes and footwear. The total number of artists, stage hands, workers and office employees at the theatre is well over 3,000.

The Bolshoi Theatre building was hit by a German bomb during the war but has been completely restored. Today it is even more comfortable and more beautiful than before the war.

The Bolshoi is a favourite theatre of both Moscovites and out-of-town visitors. Everyone coming to Moscow goes here first when seeking entertainment. Its productions are broadcast regularly.

The State Academic Bolshoi Theatre has been decorated with the Order of Lenin for its outstanding contributions to operatic and ballet art.



BALLROOM SCENE IN THE OPERA *EUGENE ONEGIN*, STAGED AT THE BOLSHOI THEATRE.
1945 PRODUCTION

THE STATE ACADEMIC BOLSHOI THEATRE OF THE U.S.S.R.

THE IMPRESSIVE BUILDING which houses the Bolshoi Theatre stands on Sverdlov Square in the very heart of the Soviet capital. One of Moscow's architectural gems, it is fronted by eight graceful columns and has a sculptural group above the portico representing Apollo driving his chariot.

Despite its size the Bolshoi Theatre does not seem massive, for it has elegant and well-proportioned lines. The same harmony of line is found inside the building. The main hall, which has a seating capacity of more than 2,000, is considered one of the most beautiful auditoriums in the world. Red velvet upholstery and gilt decorations create an atmosphere of rich splendour. A painting of the Nine Muses covers the ceiling, from which an enormous crystal chandelier is suspended. The great stage, draped with a heavy curtain of gold cloth, is particularly well suited for presenting ballets and operas with large mass scenes.

Two years ago the Bolshoi Theatre celebrated its 120th anniversary. Throughout its history this theatre has played an important part in the development of the Russian opera and ballet. All of Russia's greatest operas have been staged here, and today Russian opera holds a leading place in the repertoire: Glinka's *Ivan Susanin* and *Ruslan and Ludmila*; Chaikovsky's *Eugene Onegin* and *Queen of Spades*; *Prince Igor* by Borodin; *Snow-Maiden*, and *Tale of the Tear Sultan* by Rimsky-Korsakov, and Moussorgsky's *Boris Godunov*.

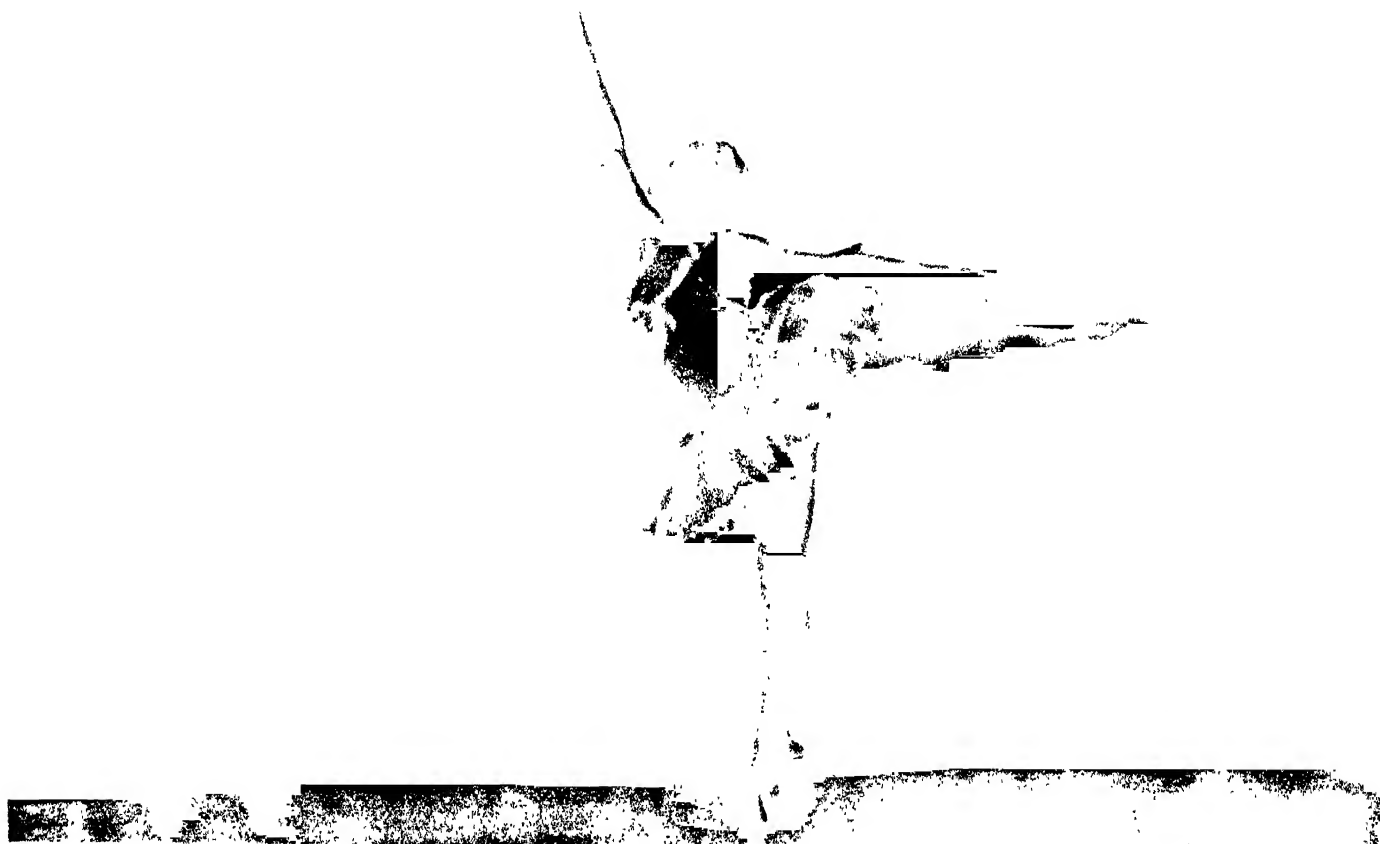
The repertoire also includes such world-famous operas as Bizet's *Carmen* and Rossini's *William Tell*, and the Georgian opera *Absalom and Eteri*, by Paliashvili.

The Affiliated Bolshoi Theatre, which is located near the main building, stages operas by Verdi, Rossini, Dargomyzhsky, Anton Rubinstein, Chaikovsky, Rimsky-Korsakov and other Russian and foreign composers.

Of the modern Soviet operas, the Bolshoi Theatre has produced *And Quiet Flows the Don* by Dzherzhinsky, based on Sholokhov's novel of the same title, and the Affiliated—Kabalevsky's *Under Fire*, which deals with the heroic defence of Moscow in the autumn of 1941.

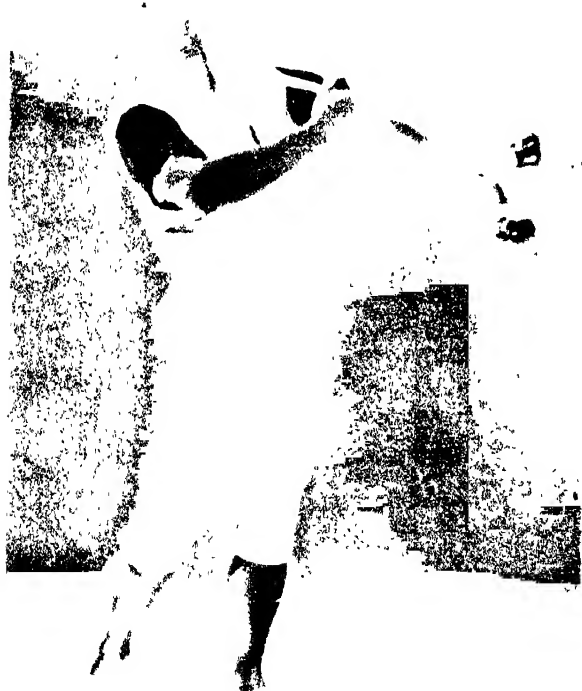
Ballets occupy an important place in the repertoires of the Bolshoi and its Affiliated Theatre. Among the classic ballets presented at both theatres are three by Chaikovsky—*Swan Lake*, *The Nutcracker* and *Sleeping Beauty*—Glazunov's *Raimonda*, Adam's *Giselle* and Minkus' *Don Quixote*. A number of new ballets written in Soviet times also figure prominently in the repertoires: *Cinderella* by Prokofiev, Yurovsky's *Crimson Sails*, Asafyev's *Fountain of Bakhchisarai* and *Flames of Paris*, and Gliere's *Red Poppy*, which has been running successfully for years.

Over the years the Bolshoi Theatre has developed into a true academy of the vocal and choreographic arts. The careers of brilliant singers and dancers, conductors and ballet masters, stage decorators and producers are associated



GALINA ULANOVA

People's Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. and the
Kazakh S.S.R. Stalin Prize Winner
Prima ballerina of the State Academic Bolshoi
Theatre of the U.S.S.R. Roles: Maria in
Asafiev's ballet *Fountain of Bakhchisarai*, title
role in Adam's *Giselle* and Juliet in Proko-
fiyev's *Romeo and Juliet*



MIKHAIL GABOVICH

Merited Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. Stalin Prize
Winner
Ballet dancer of the State Academic Bolshoi
Theatre of the U.S.S.R. Roles: Prince
Siegfried in Chaikovsky's ballet *Swan Lake*,
Albert in Adam's *Giselle*, Romeo in Pro-
kofiev's *Romeo and Juliet*



MARIA MAKSAKOVA

(MEZZO-SOPRANO)

Merited Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. Stalin Prize
Winner

Singer at the State Academic Bolshoi Theatre
of the U.S.S.R. Roles: Title role in Bizet's
Carmen, Martha in Moussorgsky's *Hovanshchina*,
Xenia in Dzerzhinsky's *And Quiet Flows the Don*



SERGEI LEMESHEV

(TENOR)

Merited Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. Stalin Prize
Winner

Singer at the State Academic Bolshoi Theatre
of the U.S.S.R. Roles: Lensky in *Eugene Onegin*,
Romeo in Gounod's *Romeo and Juliet*, title role
in Napravnik's *Dubrovsky*

DAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR



DAVID OISTRAKH

(VIOLINIST)

Merited Worker of Art of the R.S.F.S.R. Stalin
Prize Winner

Professor of Chaikovsky State Conservatory of
Music in Moscow



EVGENI MRAVINSKY

(CONDUCTOR)

Merited Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. Stalin Prize
Winner

Professor of Leningrad State Conservatory
of Music

THE MOSCOW ART THEATRE

"The Art Theatre is as fine and significant as the Tretyakov State Picture Gallery, St. Basil's Cathedral and all the best things of Moscow. Not to love it is inconceivable, not to work for it is a crime..."

Maxim Gorky in a letter to Anton Chekhov,
September 1900.

Founded in 1898 by Konstantin Stanislavsky, stage producer and amateur actor, and Vladimir Nemirovich-Danchenko, the playwright, the Moscow Art Theatre is shortly celebrating its fiftieth anniversary. The fame of the Art Theatre is truly world-wide, and its influence on the theatrical art of Europe, America and even the East cannot be overestimated.

According to the idea of its founders, the Art Theatre was to have catered to the democratic intelligentsia at large. This cultural mission was combined with a bold quest for new forms based on the scenic art reform which the theatre had introduced at the beginning of the 20th century. The Art Theatre showed itself to be a theatre of a new psychological trend, and its art was the art of living realism and profound human experience. Before a new play is staged, the producer subjects it to a deep psychological analysis. Both producer and cast endeavour first to discover the motives that govern the actions of the characters. This method is what constitutes the famous "Stanislavsky system" which the author himself defined as "a method of work which enables the actor to create the character of his role, to reveal the workings of the human soul and embody it on the stage in a beautiful artistic form."

The theatre opened with the production of Alexei Konstantinovich Tolstoy's historical tragedy, *Tear Fyodor*, a play which is still in the theatre's repertoire.

The theatre demonstrated its magnificent art during its opening season with a fine and subtle performance of *The Seagull* by the famous Russian author and playwright Anton Chekhov. This play, which had not met with success in the other theatres where it had been staged before, was the Art Theatre's first and indubitable triumph. It was also the beginning of the fruitful collaboration and firm friendship that sprang up between the Art Theatre and the great writer. The seagull became the theatre's emblem, and its drop curtain is embellished with the figure of a gull in flight over the sea.

Chekhov's finest plays, such as *The Three Sisters* and *The Cherry Orchard*, were specially written for the Art Theatre, which takes just pride in the fact that the most important chapter in the theatre's history is a record of all Chekhov's plays staged by the theatre at one time or another. Shortly before the Great Patriotic War, Nemirovich-Danchenko presented a revival of *The Three Sisters*, and the 1946-47 program included a revival of *Uncle Vanya* with a new cast.

No less close ties exist between the Art Theatre and Maxim Gorky. When Gorky first made his brilliant appearance on the literary horizon at the end of the 'nineties, the Art Theatre persuaded the author to try his hand at playwriting. The result were the plays *Philistines* and *The Lower Depths* with which Maxim Gorky made his debut on the stage of the Art Theatre in 1902. The production of *The Lower Depths* was both an artistic triumph and an event of no little social importance. In this play, which depicts the life of men and women inmates of a doss house who have sunken to the lower depths, both author and theatre asserted their belief in the ultimate triumph of social justice.

After the Great October Socialist Revolution of 1917, Maxim Gorky's plays became still greater favourites on the stage of the Art Theatre, which rendered fine performances of *The Lower Depths* and *Enemies* and of his new plays *Yegor Bulichev* and *Others*, *Dostigayev* and *Others*, etc.

Gorky's struggle to remodel life on the principles of justice has been one of the fundamental elements of the theatre's

creative activity, and, on the 35th anniversary of the great writer's literary career, the Moscow Art Theatre was named in his honour.

In addition to plays by Chekhov and Gorky, the theatre has been producing the works of other Russian classics such as Gogol, Griboyedov, Pushkin, Leo Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky, Ostrovsky, Turgenev and Saltykov-Shchedrin, as well as Sophocles, Shakespeare, Byron, Molière, Sheridan, Goldoni, Ibsen, and dramatizations of Dickens. It is nevertheless characteristic of the theatre that it keeps abreast of modern dramaturgy and is constantly seeking authors whose works would meet its artistic and ideological demands, as those of Chekhov and Gorky had done in their time. Among the modern Soviet plays produced by the theatre mention may be made of the first plays by Leonid Leonov, Vsevolod Ivanov, Valentin Kataev and Mikhail Bulgakov. Among the newer plays the theatre is at present staging *The Kremlin Chimes* by Nikolai Pogodin, *Deep Prospecting* and *Officer of the Fleet* by Alexander Kron, and *Ivan Grozny* by Alexei Tolstoy.

After the brilliant production of a dramatic version of Leo Tolstoy's *Anna Karenina* in 1937, the Moscow Art Theatre was awarded the Order of Lenin—being the first theatre in the Soviet Union to receive that honour—and was later awarded the Order of the Red Banner of Labour.

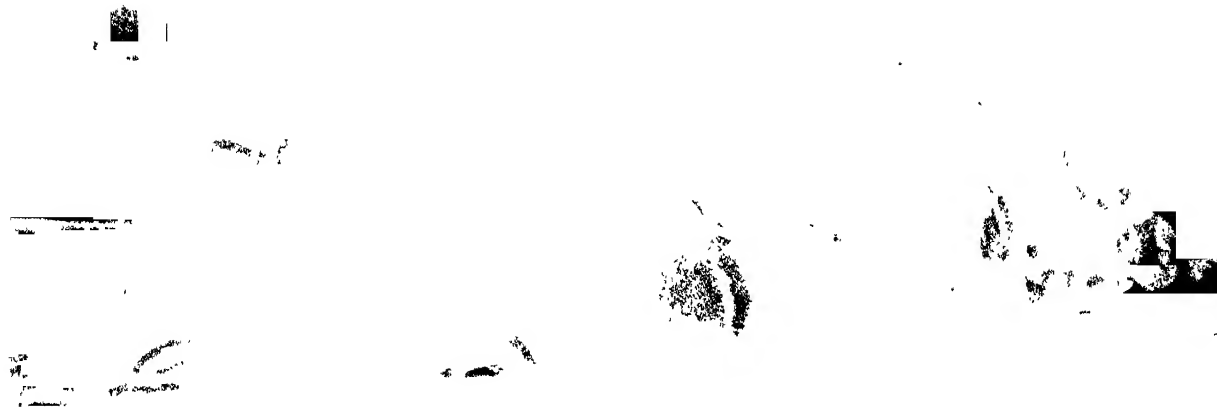
The Art Theatre's oldest actors are Olga Knipper-Chekhova, People's Artist of the U.S.S.R. and widow of Anton Chekhov, who played in the theatre's first production, and Vassili Kachalov, People's Artist of the U.S.S.R. who is a favourite of many generations of Russian audiences, and who has been with the company since 1901.

The fine company of the Moscow Art Theatre contains numerous talented actors of the older and newer generation, including Alla Tarasova, Klavdia Yelanskaya, Olga Androvskaya, Nikolai Dobronravov and Alexei Gribov, to mention only a few. The art director of the theatre is Mikhail Kedrov, a pupil of Stanislavsky and an authority on the latter's system.

The Moscow Art Theatre has staged 113 plays since its foundation, giving 18,000 performances to an audience of over twenty million people. Such plays as Gorky's *The Lower Depths*, Chekhov's *The Cherry Orchard* and Maeterlinck's *Blue Bird* have had a run of over a thousand nights each, and A. K. Tolstoy's *Tear Fyodor* has been performed over 800 times.

The unassuming exterior of this famous theatre is decorated with a bas-relief by Vrubel. The interior decoration and stage equipment make it one of the finest playhouses in the country. Its stage permits of the most lavish settings and is at the same time peculiarly adapted for the performance of intimate psychological plays.

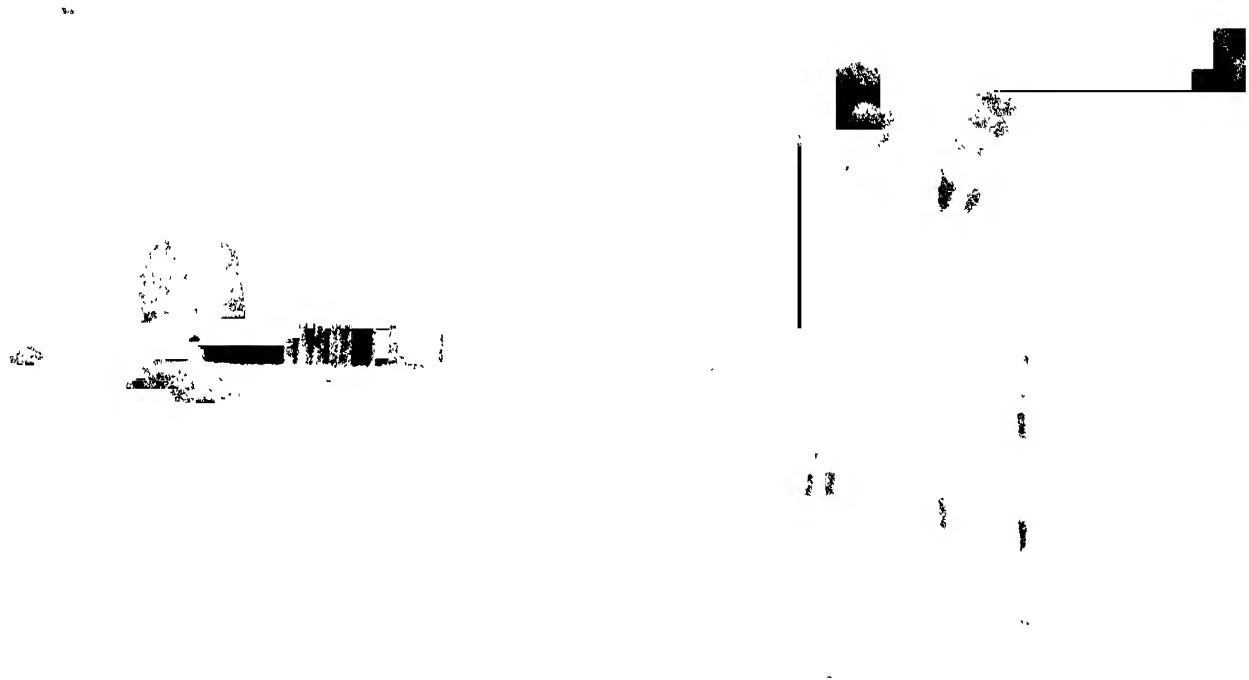
The great founders of the Art Theatre, Konstantin Stanislavsky (died in 1938) and Vladimir Nemirovich-Danchenko (died in 1943) always attached great importance to the training of young actors and producers. A number of studios were formed at the Moscow Art Theatre after the October Revolution, which have since developed into independent playhouses (the Vakhtangov Theatre, the Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko Musical Theatre and the Stanislavsky Theatre of Opera and Drama). At the present time the Art Theatre maintains a studio school named after Nemirovich-Danchenko where young actors are being trained in the traditions of the Moscow Art Theatre.



DOSS HOUSE SCENE FROM GORKY'S PLAY THE LOWER DEPTHS, 1902 PRODUCTION

BELOW: THIRD ACT FROM CHEKHOV'S PLAY THREE SISTERS. 1940 PRODUCTION





SCENE FROM N. POGODIN'S PLAY *KREMLIN CHIMES*

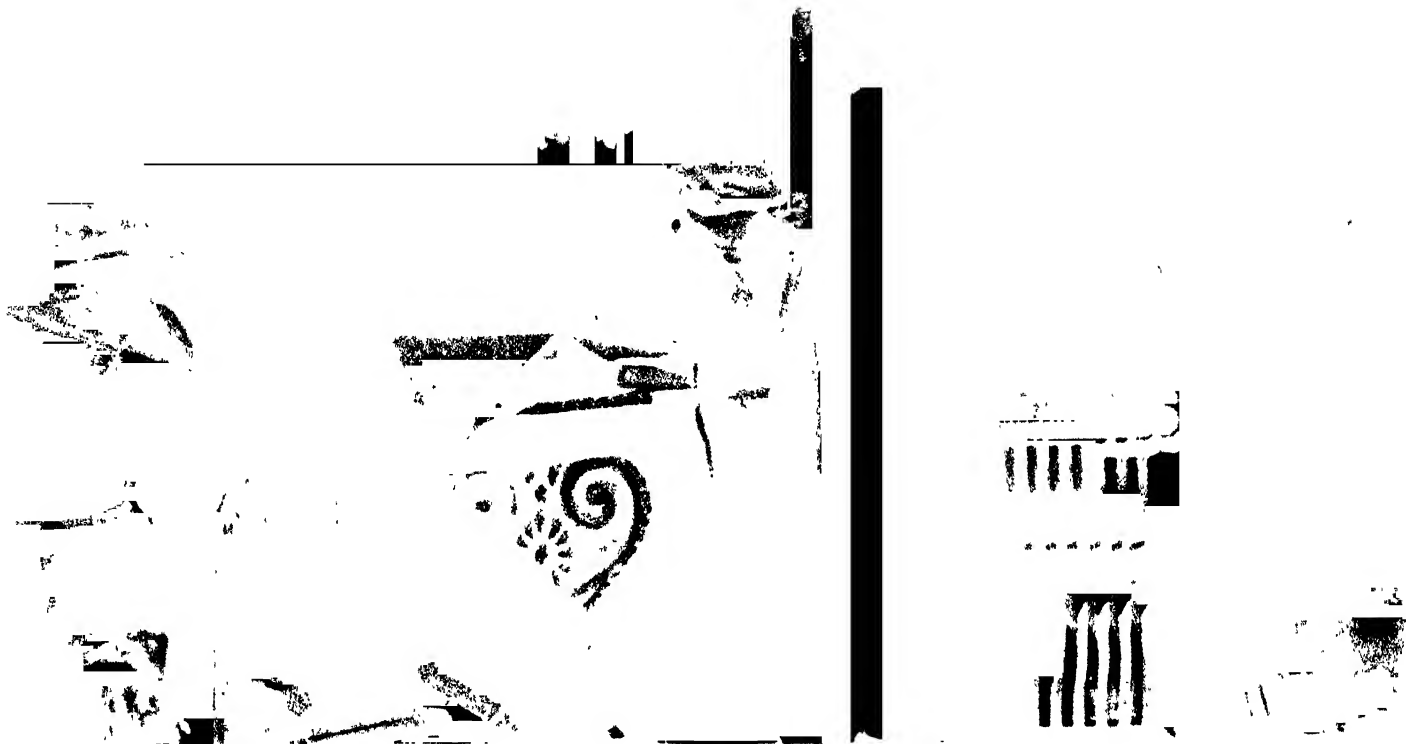
Left to right:

DZERZHINSKY—VASSILI MARKOV

ENGINEER ZABELIN—Merited Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. MIKHAIL BOLDUMAN

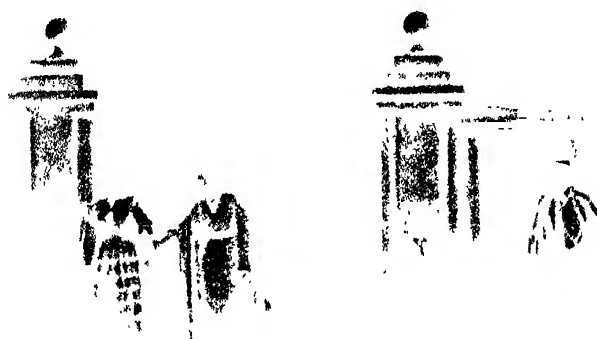
LENIN— People's Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. ALEXEI GRIBOV

STALIN—MIKHAIL GELOVANI



SECOND ACT FROM ALEXEI TOLSTOI'S PLAY IVAN GROZNY, 1944 PRODUCTION
In the leading role, People's Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. KONSTANTIN ZUBOV

BELOW: THIRD ACT FROM A. OSTROVSKY'S PLAY WOLVES AND SHEEP



THE STATE ACADEMIC MALY THEATRE OF THE U.S.S.R.

THE STATE ACADEMIC MALY THEATRE of the U.S.S.R. is situated on Sverdlov Square in the centre of Moscow. The low, unpretentious yellow building was erected by the famous architect Bove for a Moscow merchant named Vargin in the twenties of the 19th century, when the city was recovering from the fires and ruin wrought by Napoleon's invasion. The building, which contained offices, shops and a small concert hall, was leased to the Moscow Drama Troupe. On October 26, 1824, after the necessary alterations had been made, the theatre which later came to be known as the Maly, opened here.

The Maly Theatre counts this day as the day of its birth but actually it is considerably older: the Moscow Drama Troupe gave its first performance on April 11, 1806. Thus 1946 marked the 140th anniversary of the Maly Theatre.

Profound realism and high ideological content lie at the bottom of the art of the Maly Theatre. Throughout all its history the theatre has been a seat of culture and education.

The great Russian actor Mikhail Shchepkin, who is justly called the father of Russian scenic realism, appeared on its stage for several decades in the first half of the 19th century. Shchepkin was a progressive man of his epoch and counted among his close friends and acquaintances such outstanding Russian writers as Alexander Pushkin, Nikolai Gogol, Alexander Herzen and Vissarion Belinsky, and the Ukrainian poet Taras Shevchenko.

The Shchepkin period was also the period of the Russian classicists Nikolai Gogol and Alexander Griboyedov. Gogol's comedy *The Inspector General* and Griboyedov's *Wit Works Woe*, both staged by the Maly Theatre, give a true and striking picture of Russian life of those days. The Maly Theatre has continued throughout its history to present works by the best Russian playwrights. A bronze statue erected by the Soviet government in honour of Alexander Ostrovsky, the great Russian playwright of the second half of the 19th century, stands near the entrance to the theatre. Ostrovsky is the author of a large number of dramas and comedies presenting the progressive ideas of his days. The characters of his plays represent Russians of various social standing and rank.

The Sadovskys, beginning with Prov Sadovsky, a friend of Ostrovsky, won fame by their remarkable acting in Ostrovsky's plays at the Maly Theatre. Members of this family have been appearing on the stage of the theatre for a whole century now. Prov Sadovsky's grandson, who also carries the name of Prov, had been its art director for years, until his recent death.

The classics of Western dramaturgy have been staged here alongside the plays of outstanding Russian writers. Twenty-seven of Shakespeare's thirty-seven plays have been performed by the company, seventeen of them for the first time in Russian. In the forties of the last century the famous tragedian Pavel Mochalov, unexcelled in his role of Hamlet, co-starred with Shchepkin.

Maria Yermolova displayed her brilliant talent as tragedienne in the second half of the 19th century. Her performances in such roles as Laurencia in *Fuente Ovejuna* by Lope de Vega, and Jeanne d'Arc and Maria Stuart in the tragedies by Schiller were soul-stirring.

At the end of the 19th century the Maly Theatre company was a real constellation of stars. Besides Yermolova and the Sadovskys, it included such brilliant comedians and dramatic actors as Glikeria Fedotova, Helen Leshkovskaya, Alexander Yuzhin and Alexander Lensky. Every performance was distinguished for the exceptional team-work of the company.

Lensky was not only a splendid actor but a teacher as well. Many of the Maly Theatre's present-day actors are his pupils. As stage producer and innovator he included many young actors in his productions; with their participation he staged such difficult plays as Shakespeare's *The Tempest* and Ostrovsky's *Snow-Maiden*. He was the first to employ the revolving stage in the Russian theatre. Lensky's sculptural works and stage models, which have been preserved in Moscow in the Theatrical Museum, show that he was a sculptor of unusual ability as well.

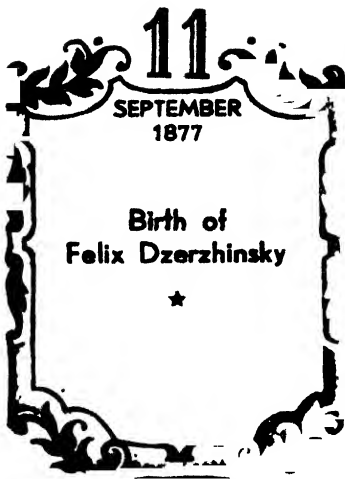
All the finest features of the Maly Theatre have been carefully retained to this day: powerful scenic realism, creative ties with contemporary dramaturgy, and a repertoire including the classics of Russian and world literature.

The Russian classics, primarily plays by Ostrovsky, Gogol, Griboyedov and Gorky, continue to form the core of the repertoire. The theatre also produces outstanding works by Soviet playwrights: *Lyubov Yarovaya* by Konstantin Trenov, *The Invasion* by Leonid Leonov, *The Creation of the World* by Nikolai Pogodin, *In the Steppes of the Ukraine* and *Front* by Alexander Korneichuk. One of its most interesting productions of recent years is Bernard Shaw's *Pygmalion*, with Darya Zerkalova and Konstantin Zubov in the star roles.

The leading lights of the Maly Theatre company are its oldest actors: People's Artists of the U.S.S.R. Alexandra Yablochkina, Varvara Ryzhova, Evdokia Turchaninova, Vera Pashennaya, Nikolai Yakovlev, and Alexander Ostuzhev who achieved unusual success as Othello and as Uriel Acosta in Gutskov's tragedy. The troupe of the theatre is annually supplemented by actors from other theatres of both Moscow and other cities, and by young actors trained at the Shchepkin Drama School affiliated with the Maly Theatre.

The theatre is constantly striving to enrich its art and to keep in step with the demands of the modern theatre-goer. In addition to its main building the theatre has been operating a branch in one of Moscow's industrial districts since 1923. During the Great Patriotic War the theatre organized a troupe which toured the army in the field.

In September 1937, the Maly Theatre was decorated with the Order of Lenin by the government "for outstanding services in the development of Russian theatrical art."



FELIX DZERZHINSKY

FELIX DZERZHINSKY

(1877-1926)

FELIX EDMUNDOVICH DZERZHINSKY was an outstanding leader of the working-class movement in Poland and Russia, and a loyal associate of Lenin and Stalin.

Dzerzhinsky was born on September 11, 1877, into the family of a small landowner in Lithuania, of Polish nationality. At the age of 17, while at the Vilno (Vilnius) high school, he participated in the socialist movement; a year later he became a member of the Lithuanian Social-Democratic Party and from then on devoted himself entirely to political work. Early in 1897 Dzerzhinsky went to Kovno (Kaunas) on the instructions of the Party, where he conducted revolutionary work among the workers, winning their confidence and esteem. As one of the leaders of the working-class movement of Poland and Lithuania, he led the struggle of the workers in the revolution of 1905; at the Fourth Congress of the Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party in 1906 he was elected to its Central Committee. At this congress he met Lenin and Stalin for the first time.

For his revolutionary activity Dzerzhinsky was savagely persecuted by the tsarist authorities; he was repeatedly exiled and sentenced to penal servitude in Poland and Russia. He spent nearly eleven years in prison and in penal servitude.

No amount of persecution, however, could shake Dzerzhinsky's iron will and profound faith in the victory of the revolution. He wrote to his family: "... Life can only destroy me, even as a storm uproots a century-old oak, but it can never change me! ... My struggle can only end in the grave."

The February Revolution of 1917 released Dzerzhinsky from a Moscow prison. Immediately upon his release he became extremely active in the Moscow Bolshevik Party organization. At the Sixth Congress of the Bolshevik Party in August 1917 Dzerzhinsky was elected to the Central Committee of the Party. Later, in the period when the actual preparations for the October Revolution were being made, he became a member of the Party Centre, headed by Stalin, which led the uprising. After the victory of the revolution, Dzerzhinsky, on the recommendation of Lenin, was appointed Chairman of the Extraordinary Commission to Combat Counter-Revolution, Sabotage, and Speculation (*Cheka*). Directed by Dzerzhinsky, it became a powerful weapon against the plots and attempts upon Soviet power. At this post Dzerzhinsky displayed an iron will and determination in the struggle against all enemies of the revolution.

The work conducted by the *Cheka* proved one of the decisive factors in the victory of the Red Army in the Civil War.

Dzerzhinsky's activities were not limited to the *Cheka*.

As the staunch comrade-in-arms of Lenin and Stalin, he was always sent to the most decisive sectors of the struggle. Towards the end of 1918, when the country was in grave danger on the Eastern Front, Lenin sent Stalin and Dzerzhinsky to that front. They exerted tremendous efforts to improve the fighting capacity of the army, and achieved a turning point along the entire Eastern Front.

In the spring of 1920, the decisive front of the Civil War was the Western Front. The situation was exceedingly tense. During this period Felix Dzerzhinsky was given an important command on the Southwestern Front. His work there did much to ensure the success of the Red Army.

In 1921, after the Civil War was over, he was appointed to the post of People's Commissar of Railways. At that time the transport system was in a state of utter collapse. Under Dzerzhinsky's supervision the railways were rehabilitated and rapidly reached the pre-war level.

On Stalin's recommendation, Dzerzhinsky was appointed Chairman of the Supreme Council of the national Economy in February 1924. In this capacity he worked for the implementation of Lenin's and Stalin's plans of socialist industrialization of the U.S.S.R., and devoted much effort to advancing the iron and steel industry, realizing that this was decisive for the reconstruction of the national economy as a whole. The first giants of Soviet industry were founded under Dzerzhinsky's supervision.

Even while acting as Commissar of Railways Dzerzhinsky continued to head the *Cheka* and dealt the enemies of the revolution more than one shattering blow.

A man of seething energy, a courageous fighter and true knight of the proletariat, he died at work, at his post. Death came from heart failure on July 20, 1926, after he had made one of his impassioned speeches.

In an obituary devoted to the memory of Dzerzhinsky, Stalin wrote:

"When now, at the open coffin, one recalls the entire path Dzerzhinsky traversed—prisons, penal servitude, exile, the Extraordinary Commission to Combat Counter-Revolution, the restoration of the ruined transport, the building of the young socialist industry—one feels that this seething life can be expressed in one word: *burning*. *Burning*, and heroic *valour* in combating difficulties."

Dzerzhinsky's fine personality, his iron will, his boundless devotion to the people, his heroism, will forever serve as an example to coming generations.



MINE No. 1. OF THE KRASNODONUGOL TRUST, DONBAS, RESTORED IN 1946

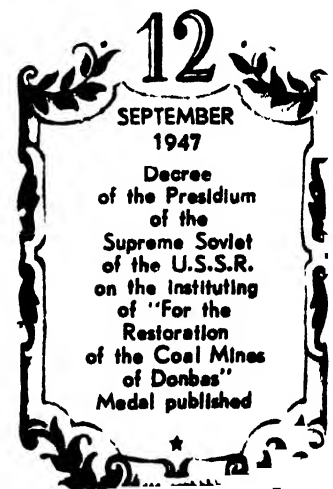
The Medal "For the Restoration of the Coal Mines of Donbas" is awarded to mine and office workers, engineering, technical and administrative personnel for outstanding work, high productivity or their services in the restoration of the Donetz Basin.

**DECREE OF THE PRESIDIUM OF THE SUPREME SOVIET OF THE U.S.S.R.
INSTITUTING THE "MINERS' DAY" FESTIVAL**

THE ANNUAL FESTIVAL "MINERS' DAY" IS HEREBY INSTITUTED.
"MINERS' DAY" WILL BE CELEBRATED ANNUALLY ON THE LAST
SUNDAY IN AUGUST.

N. SHVERNIK,
President of the Presidium
of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

A. GORKIN,
Secretary of the Presidium
of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.



THE DONETZ BASIN

THE DONETZ BASIN (Donbas), a territory of great natural resources, is particularly rich in coal deposits (estimated at about 90,000,000 tons). The basin is located mainly in the southeast of the Ukraine (Stalin and Voroshilovgrad regions) and partly in the North Caucasus (Rostov region).

Before the Great October Socialist Revolution, the natural resources of the Donetz Basin were poorly utilized. Coal was mined almost entirely by manual methods. Frequent disasters in the poorly-equipped mines resulted in numerous casualties. The iron and steel works in the basin were also very badly equipped. Most of the plants and large mines were owned by foreign companies. The life of the workers of Donbas, mercilessly exploited by Russian and foreign capitalists, was desperately hard. Undernourishment and overcrowding in the insubstantial mining and factory villages led to epidemics which carried off thousands of lives. Access to education, culture and art was virtually denied to the workers of the Donetz Basin.

After the establishment of Soviet power in Donbas, the face of the basin changed beyond recognition. A radical technical reconstruction of the old mines has been effected and many new mines have been built. All mines have been equipped with first-class machinery. The iron and steel works in the basin were also reconstructed and furnished with up-to-date machinery.

As a result, by 1938 the output of coal in Donbas amounted to 80,700,000 tons, as compared with the 25,300,000 tons mined in 1913. At the same time, the coal industry expanded in other areas too. Owing to the rapid development of coal mining in the Kuznetsk Basin, which has become the second largest mining centre in the Soviet Union, and the development of the Karaganda and Moscow and other coal fields, the share of Donbas in the total coal output of the country was reduced from 86.8 per cent in 1913 to 60.8 per cent in 1938. Donbas has, nevertheless, remained the principal coal mining region in the U.S.S.R.

The fact that cutting and bringing the coal to the surface had been 94 per cent mechanized by 1940, assuring a steady growth of the daily output, is good evidence of the industrial development of Donbas.

The Donetz towns grew rapidly in this period and the living conditions of the miners improved greatly. Not a single town in Donbas had a population of 50,000 before the revolution, while dozens of towns with populations exceeding this number sprang up under the Stalin Five-Year Plans—as can be seen from the 1939 census—among them such large industrial centres as Gorlovka (108,000), Makeyevka (240,000) and Stalino (462,000).

There were 12 schools of higher learning, 57 technical schools, 3,000 secondary and elementary schools, 1,045 clubs, 2,000 libraries, 26 palaces of culture and 1,500 cinemas in Donbas before the Great Patriotic War. Awakened to a new life by Soviet power, Donbas workers were inspired by lofty Soviet patriotism. The nation-wide movement for raising the productivity of labour, which spread throughout the U.S.S.R. and was named the Stakhanovite movement after its initiator, the miner Alexei Stakhanov, originated in Donbas. In Donbas, too, the outstanding worker-innovators Nikita Izotov, Luka Golokolosov, Nikolai Lukichev, Ivan Panashchenko and Gerasim Zaporozhets acquired nation-wide fame.

In 1941 Hitler Germany treacherously attacked the U.S.S.R., and German fascist troops occupied Donbas. The Germans expected to make full use of the riches of the region. They swaggeringly called Donbas the "Second Ruhr" and organized

dozens of holding companies for the exploitation of the natural resources and the steel and iron works of the basin. But the workers of Donbas disrupted the plans of the invaders, and the mines and plants, abandoned by the workers, came to a standstill. To satisfy their needs the Germans were forced to bring coal to Donbas from Silesia. The Donbas peasants gave no grain to the invaders. The Germans resorted to cruel repressive measures but the Donbas workers and peasants retaliated with a merciless guerilla war. The youth of Donbas earned immortal glory. The deeds of the heroes of Krasnodon will never be blotted out of the memory of Soviet people; they were strikingly and truthfully described by Fadeyev in his novel, *The Young Guard*.

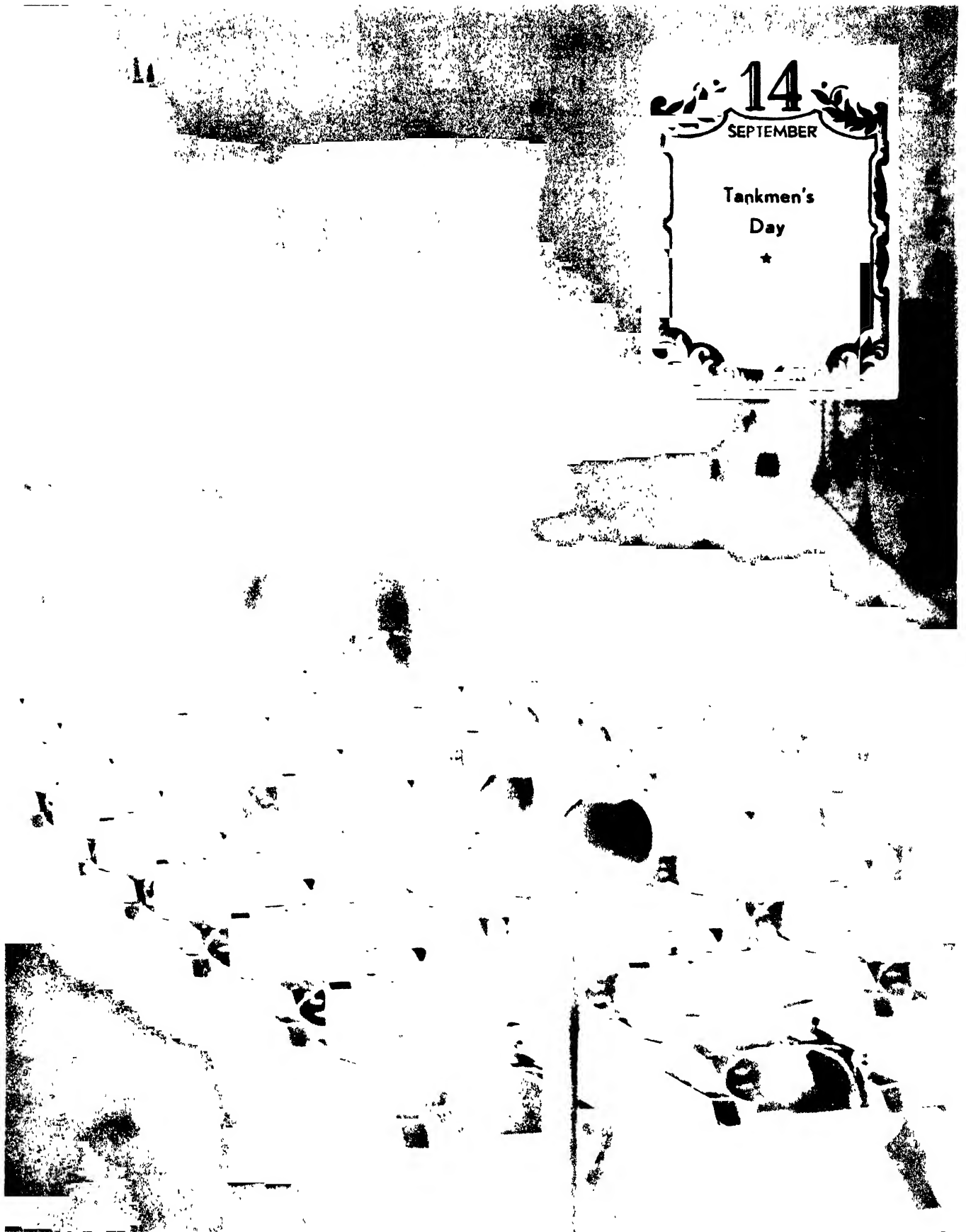
On September 8, 1943, an Order of the Day issued by Joseph Stalin announced: "... The troops of the southern and southwestern fronts have recaptured from the Germans and restored to our country the Donetz Basin—one of the most important coal and industrial regions of our country."

The German invaders wrecked and flooded 140 mines in Donbas and reduced its best plants to ruins. The war continued for another year and a half, but the restoration of Donbas began immediately the invaders had been driven out. Miners, metallurgical and building workers vied with each other in their endeavours to make the greatest possible contribution to the restoration work. In three years the Soviet government invested more than 4,000,000,000 rubles in this work of rehabilitation. More than 550,000,000 cubic metres of water were pumped out of the flooded mines during that period. By autumn 1946, 146 large and 420 small mines had been restored or built anew with a yearly production amounting to half the pre-war coal output of the basin. About 3,500,000 cubic metres of industrial buildings and structures were restored, thoroughly reconditioned or newly built by the autumn of 1946 in Voroshilovgrad and Stalino regions alone. Of the 24 blast furnaces, in operation before the war, 13 began to produce iron, while 38 open-hearth furnaces out of the 65, and 22 rolling mills out of the 44, operated before the war, began to work to full capacity in Stalino region. Thousands of houses were restored and built. The doors of hundreds of schools were thrown open to children and the theatres, parks and rest-homes of Donbas came to life again.

According to the new Five-Year Plan, 182 big coal mines will be fully restored and 60 new coal mines with a total capacity of 14,100,000 tons will be sunk in Donbas during the period of 1946-50. By 1950 the coal output of Donbas is expected to exceed its pre-war level and to reach 88,000,000 tons, as compared with the 80,700,000 tons of 1938.

In the course of the five years the coal mines, iron and steel, coking and machine-building enterprises of Donbas will expand and grow technically. In Stalino region alone each day will see the average investment of 9,000,000 rubles, as against the 5,500,000 rubles invested daily during the first 30 months of reconstruction. The towns of Donbas will be revived. Thousands of new houses will be built. Compared with 1940, the number of schools, theatres, clubs, technical schools, libraries and other cultural institutions will be considerably increased. The network of rest-homes and parks will be extended and the area planted with decorative trees, orchards and vineyards will be enlarged.

The cultured and well-to-do life of the Donbas population will flourish again. The Stalin Five-Year Plan will not merely revive Donbas; it will make it even more powerful and beautiful than it was before the war.



TANKS ON THEIR WAY TO THE PARADE. MOSCOW

TANKMEN'S DAY

TANKMEN'S DAY, observed on the second Sunday of September, was instituted by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. after the war, in recognition of the importance attached to the tank and mechanized troops and in appreciation of the great services rendered by the tankmen, tank designers and tank builders throughout the Great Patriotic War.

The first Tankmen's Day was celebrated on September 8, 1946. It was a day of national festivity, a demonstration of the people's gratitude to the heroic tankmen and the talented designers of armoured engines of war. Far and wide the country paid tribute to their glorious achievements. One of the highlights of the Moscow celebration was the military procession across the Red Square of the Fourth Guards Kantemirovka Division, which graphically portrayed the increased power of the country's tank troops and the indestructible unity of the Soviet Army and Soviet people. The stupendous feats of the Soviet tankmen were rendered possible by the close attention given to this arm of the service by the Soviet government, the Bolshevik Party, and Stalin personally, who daily gave guidance to the work of organizing the tank troops, designing armoured cars and evolving the theory of the use of tanks.

The first classical illustration of the use of Soviet tank troops was the Stalingrad operation, in which the tank and mechanized corps of General Rodin and General Volsky played an important part in the encirclement and liquidation of the 330,000 picked Nazi troops. This operation showed that Soviet armoured troops were a decisive force in carrying out the Supreme Command's strategic plans for the defeat of the enemy.

In 1943, at the Kursk salient, the Germans tried to take revenge for Stalingrad. They hurled into battle about 3,200 tanks, 1,800 aeroplanes and 6,000 guns. The Soviet Army not only repulsed the enemy onslaught but itself assumed the offensive and by a number of consecutive blows hurled the enemy far back. The groups commanded by Marshal of Armoured Troops Rotmistrov, General Katukov and General Rodin particularly distinguished themselves in the fighting. By dint of bold manoeuvres and stubborn fighting Kharkov and Orel were freed.

The same year Marshal of Armoured Troops Rybalko fought his way to the Dnieper. In spite of the enormous difficulties involved, his men forced the big river in their stride and, acting in conjunction with other Soviet troops, ejected the

enemy from Kiev. Thus the hopes which the Germans pinned on the "impregnable Dnieper wall" collapsed.

During the operations in Byelorussia the tankmen cut the enemy front into pieces and, forestalling a German withdrawal, seized Minsk. A great number of German divisions were caught in another one of those "pockets." In the Jassy-Kishinev operation in 1944, a German army group consisting of twenty-two divisions found itself between the jaws of a Soviet tank-troop pincer, and, when they closed and disposed of the Nazi troops, the Soviet tankmen dashed down the Balkans and into the Danube valley. This accelerated Rumania's and Bulgaria's withdrawal from the war.

The skilful use of armoured troops lent such speed and breadth to the Soviet offensive as had never yet been witnessed before. The Warsaw-Poznan, East Prussian and Silesian operations will always be referred to as brilliant exhibitions of how to practice the art of warfare, as illustrations of how strategic success can be achieved by huge tank groupings manoeuvring in enemy territory at a great distance from the battleline. In these operations the Soviet tankmen smashed the Nazi defences to pieces and broke through to points so far in the enemy's rear that they paralyzed his troops at the front from the Baltic Sea to the Carpathian Mountains.

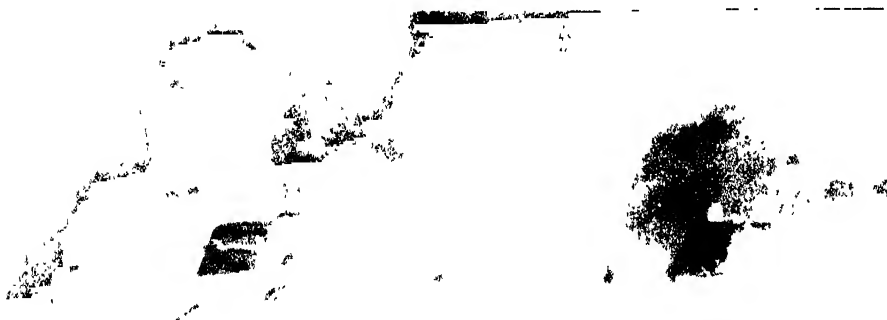
In the Battle of Berlin Soviet armoured forces demonstrated their mastery in extensive outflanking manoeuvres combined with crushing assaults upon a big centre of population. It was tank groups, commanded by Marshal Rybalko and Marshal Bogdanov, by General Katukov and General Lelyushenko, who tore into Berlin and, together with Soviet infantry and artillery, raised the Flag of Victory over the German capital.

In the Far East the rout of the Japanese aggressors by the Soviet Army was likewise facilitated by the impetuous operations of our tankmen, who owe their successes to a skilled combination of expert knowledge of battle technique and first-class combat equipment.

During the course of the war Soviet tank builders constantly improved Soviet armoured equipment, creating new types of tanks superior to the German in every respect. Lieutenant-General Kotin of the Engineering and Tank Service, Hero of Socialist Labour and Stalin Prize winner, is known far beyond the borders of the Soviet Union as an expert tank designer. The heavy tank of his creation is one of the best in the world in point of armour, manoeuvrability and fire power combination.

The Soviet people are proud of their tankmen and the country has appraised their services highly. A quarter of a million tankmen have been awarded Orders and Medals, and the title of Hero of the Soviet Union has been conferred on eleven hundred and twenty of them.

The Soviet people have spent a great amount of energy and money on the establishment of the armoured troops. And they are gratified to see that this young arm of the service has attained its majority, grown strong and is ready at a moment's notice to act in defence of the country.



Soviet tanks and infantrymen launching an attack in the Orel-Kursk direction



“All the books and papers I have written in the field of aviation, rocket navigation and interplanetary communication I bequeath to the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet Government, the real leaders of progress in human culture.”

K. Tsiolkovsky

KONSTANTIN TSIOLKOVSKY

(1857-1935)

KONSTANTIN EDUARDOVICH TSIOLKOVSKY, son of a forester, was born in Ryazan gubernia. At the age of nine he became almost completely deaf as the result of an illness, and books became his only teachers.

At the age of twenty Tsiolkovsky began teaching, a profession at which he continued working for forty years, teaching mathematics first in the town of Borovsk and later in Kaluga. While teaching, he continued his self-education, studying astronomy, biology and chemistry.

Tsiolkovsky displayed great interest in aeronautics. His scientific work in this field began with a research paper entitled *The Theory and Practice of the Aerostat*, which in 1887 was approved by the Moscow Society of Naturalists. Famous Russian scientists—Dmitri Mendeleyev, Nikolai Zhukovsky, Alexander Stoletov—heartily supported this talented self-educated man.

A few years later Tsiolkovsky's *Dirigible Metal Airship* was published, a work which gave concrete form to the principles outlined in his earlier work. Tsiolkovsky proposed a bold and original design for a dirigible with a corrugated metal shell capable of providing sufficient rigidity.

At the end of the last century, when the first feeble attempts were being made to rise into the air on a heavier-than-air machine, Tsiolkovsky published a paper, *The Aeroplane, or Bird-like Flying Machine* (1895), where he suggested a design which is astonishingly like a modern aeroplane. He prophesied that the internal combustion engine would become the chief form of motive power for aircraft and that the fuselage would have to be streamlined. He also foresaw the thickening of the air-foil and introduced an automatic gyroscopic stabilizer.

As early as fifty years ago Tsiolkovsky designed the first wind tunnel in Russia for the purpose of studying air resistance.

In 1903 the journal *Vozdushnoye Obozreniye* (*Air Review*) published Tsiolkovsky's article "The Exploration of the Expenses of the Universe with Jet-Propelled Instruments." The paper contained a theoretical computation of jet-driven flying machines, thus instituting a new branch of science—cosmic navigation or cosmonautics. The Russian scientist was the first to analyze the wonderful prospects of an apparatus of this type: he determined the power of the jet-engine, the speed necessary to overcome the resistance of the atmosphere and terrestrial gravity and the fuel to be used by interplanetary airships.

Konstantin Tsiolkovsky's life story is a splendid example of self-abnegating service to science. Although Tsiolkovsky was a bold innovator and inventor, under the rule of the tsars he was a forgotten man who was given no material support. He had to deny himself of much in life in order to spend his own meagre income on scientific experimentation and on the design and manufacture of models.

The revolution brought a great change: in Soviet times

Tsiolkovsky's ideas were recognized and he was given the state support that was his due. The result was that his creative genius was given full play in the new period. Apart from the large number of articles published in magazines and newspapers ("The Cosmic Rocket Train," "The Steel Dirigible," "The Jet-Propelled Aeroplane," "The Semi-jet-propelled Strato-plane," "From Aeroplane to Stellarplane," "Stellar Navigation," are some of them), in which he developed and popularized his ideas, he directed the construction of a huge model dirigible out of corrugated stainless steel—volume = 1,000 cubic metres, length = 45 metres, greatest diameter = 7.2 metres.

When a serious illness chained Tsiolkovsky to his bed, he wrote the following letter to Joseph Stalin:

"Wise leader and friend of all working people, Comrade

"All my life I have dreamed that my labours might serve to bring about at least some small progress of the human race. Before the revolution my dreams could not possibly come true. The October Revolution brought recognition for the work of a self-educated man. Soviet power and the Party of Lenin and Stalin gave me effective assistance. I felt that the masses of the people loved me and this gave me strength to continue my work even after my illness began. The illness, however, will not now permit me to finish that which I have begun.

"All the books and papers I have written in the field of aviation, rocket navigation and interplanetary communication, I bequeath to the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet government, the real leaders of progress in human culture. I am confident that they will bring my work to a successful conclusion. . . .

"My heart and all my thoughts are ever with you: to you I address these last sincere greetings,

K. Tsiolkovsky

"September 18, 1935."

Konstantin Tsiolkovsky died on September 19, 1935 at the age of 78. His works and his ideas have become the scientific basis of the modern theory of jet propulsion. He foresaw the significance of jet propulsion and the conquest of the stratosphere, of flights at supersonic speeds.

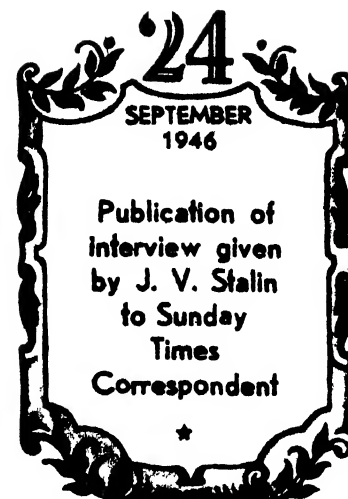
A museum has been opened in Kaluga in the house where Tsiolkovsky died. The exhibits are mechanical devices and models which he made with his own hands. The scientist's manuscripts and copies of his published works are exhibited in glass showcases.

Konstantin Tsiolkovsky's tombstone bears the following prophetic words inscribed under the bas-relief of a rocket:

"Mankind will not remain on the earth forever but, in search of light and space, will at first timidly penetrate beyond the limits of the atmosphere and then finally conquer the spaces of the solar system."

J. V. STALIN REPLIES TO QUESTIONS

Submitted by Mr. Alexander Werth,
Moscow Correspondent of the *Sunday Times*,
on September 17, 1946



QUESTION: Do you believe in a real danger of a "new war" concerning which there is so much irresponsible talk throughout the world today? What steps should be taken to prevent war, if such a danger exists?

ANSWER: I do not believe in a real danger of a "new war."

The noise about a "new war" is being made chiefly by the military-political scouts and their few followers from among the civilian ranks. They need this noise if only: a) to frighten with the phantom of war certain naive politicians from among the ranks of their counter-agents and thus help their own governments extract from such counter-agents the greatest number of concessions; b) to render difficult for some time the reduction of war budgets in their own countries; c) to put a brake on the demobilization of troops and thus prevent the rapid growth of unemployment in their own countries.

One must strictly distinguish between the noise about a "new war" which is now being made and a real danger of a "new war" which does not exist at the present time.

QUESTION: Do you believe that Great Britain and the United States of America are consciously placing the Soviet Union in a state of "capitalist encirclement"?

ANSWER: I do not think that the ruling circles of Great Britain and the United States of America could create a "capitalist encirclement" "for the Soviet Union" even if they wanted it, though I cannot assert this.

QUESTION: To quote Mr. Wallace's recent speech,

may Britain, Western Europe and the United States be certain that Soviet policy in Germany will not become an instrument of Russian designs against Western Europe?

ANSWER: I exclude the use of Germany by the Soviet Union against Western Europe and the United States of America. I consider this out of the question, not only because the Soviet Union is bound by an agreement of mutual assistance against German aggression with Great Britain and France and by the decisions of the Potsdam Conference of the Three Great Powers with the United States of America, but also because a policy of utilizing Germany against Western Europe and the United States of America would mean a departure of the Soviet Union from its fundamental national interests.

In short, the policy of the Soviet Union on the German question reduces itself to the demilitarization and democratization of Germany. I think that the demilitarization and democratization of Germany form one of the most important guarantees for the establishment of a stable and lasting peace.

QUESTION: What is your view of the charges that Communist parties of Western Europe are having their policy "dictated by Moscow"?

ANSWER: I consider these charges absurd, borrowed from the bankrupt arsenal of Hitler and Goebbels.

QUESTION: Do you believe in the possibility of friendly and lasting co-operation between the Soviet Union and the Western democracies despite the existence of ideological differences, and in the

"friendly competition" between the two systems to which Mr. Wallace referred?

ANSWER: I believe in it unquestionably.

QUESTION: During the recent sojourn here of the Labour Party delegation you, as far as I understand, expressed certainty of the possibility of friendly relations between the Soviet Union and Great Britain. What could help in establishing these relations so profoundly desired by the broad masses of the British people?

ANSWER: I am indeed convinced of the possibility of friendly relations between the Soviet Union and Great Britain. The strengthening of political, commercial and cultural bonds between these countries would considerably contribute to the establishment of such relations.

QUESTION: Do you believe the earliest withdrawal of all American forces in China to be vital for future peace?

ANSWER: Yes, I do.

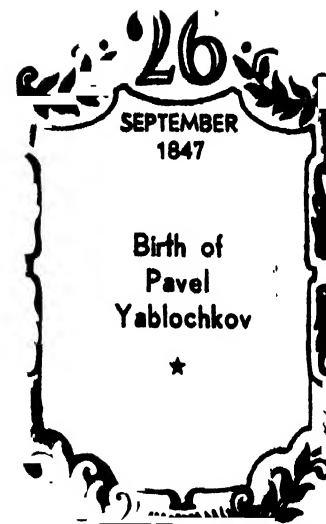
QUESTION: Do you believe that virtual monopoly by the U.S.A. of the atom bomb is one of the main dangers to peace?

ANSWER: I do not consider the atom bomb to be as serious a force as some politicians are inclined to consider it. Atom bombs are intended for intimidating the weak-nerved, but they cannot decide the outcome of war, since for this atom bombs are entirely insufficient. Of course, the monopolistic possession of the secret of the atom bomb creates a menace, but against this there are at least two remedies: a) the monopolistic possession of the atom bomb cannot last long; b) the use of the atom bomb will be prohibited.

QUESTION: Do you believe that with the further progress of the Soviet Union towards Communism the possibilities of peaceful co-operation with the outside world will not decrease as far as the Soviet Union is concerned? Is "Communism in one country" possible?

ANSWER: I have no doubt that the possibilities of peaceful co-operation will not only not decrease but may even grow.

"Communism in one country" is perfectly possible, especially in a country like the Soviet Union.



ADUR

AB S

PAVEL YABLOCHKOV

PAVEL YABLOCHKOV

(1847-1894)

PAVEL NIKOLAYEVICH YABLOCHKOV occupies a prominent place in the list of those scientists and inventors whose work has made possible the rapid development of the theory of electricity and practical electrical engineering.

At the age of nineteen he had graduated from the Military School and the Officers' Courses in Electrical Engineering at St. Petersburg, and continued to perfect his knowledge in the field of electricity.

In the sixties of the last century electrical engineering was just making its first, rather timid, steps forward. Armed only with the limited theoretical information that had been accumulated at that time, Yablochkov began independent research. He was especially interested in the problem of electric light. The first attempt at turning electrical energy into light was made by the Russian scientist, Academician Vassili Petrov, in 1802. Petrov was the first to record the phenomenon of what was afterwards called the Voltaic Arc. The practical application of this discovery for lighting purposes proved impossible because the carbon rods between which the arc was formed burned away too quickly. The distance between them increased and the arc went out. Various types of regulators were proposed to bring the carbons closer together as they burnt down; all of them, however, were too costly and unreliable.

In 1875 Yablochkov went to Paris in search of a means of perfecting the system without the use of a regulator. He went to work in the shops of the firm of Breguet, then famous for the manufacture of precision instruments, and continued his research.

Finally Yablochkov produced a brilliant solution to this difficult problem. He placed the two carbons parallel to each other and not end to end as all his predecessors had done: between them he used a layer of kaolin as an insulator. The arc burned between the upper ends of the two rods and the layer of kaolin between them melted away from the high temperature developed. In this way the carbon ends were burned away but the distance between them never changed. The kaolin insulator made the arc more stable and there was none of the flickering that was a feature of the lamps with regulators. The use of various substances as insulators enabled the constructor to change the colour of the arc itself.

Early in 1876 Yablochkov was granted the first French licence for his wonderful invention which became known as the "Yablochkov Candle."

Yablochkov's invention soon met with the approval of sci-

entists and then of the general public. The "Russian Light" and the "Northern Light" were other names given to the Yablochkov Candle as it spread over the whole of Europe with unprecedented rapidity. It was the most interesting item shown at the London Exhibition of Physical Instruments in 1876. The practical use of the Yablochkov Candle began that same year: within a very few years the Candle was being used to illuminate the biggest shops, theatres and whole streets of Paris, London and other cities.

Yablochkov continued to perfect his invention. He developed a system for the automatic change of carbons in the lamp. When the question of supplying electricity to arc lamps was raised, Yablochkov worked out a system of supplying several lamps from one machine.

Yablochkov's inventions were demonstrated at several World Expositions in Paris.

The Yablochkov Candle gave the first and most decisive impetus to the development of alternators. A number of firms began manufacturing generators supplying alternating current. Yablochkov, therefore, was not only the first to solve the problem of electric light but he also solved problems connected with an electric circuit as a whole; his circuits were for alternating current which he was the first to introduce into commercial practice. This was a real revolution in practical electrical engineering and one that was of great importance to future developments. The later researches by Yablochkov, which he continued to the day of his death, were devoted to the development of methods of supplying current for lighting and to other problems of electrical engineering.

Yablochkov was a great patriot. He rejected the very considerable advantages which he could have obtained by participating in the production of his lamps abroad, in order to help develop electrical engineering in Russia.

In 1879 Yablochkov returned to Russia and began energetically propagating his scientific discoveries. He delivered lectures and demonstrated the new lighting methods. The St. Petersburg public admired the brilliant light of his Candles on the Palace Bridge and Catherine Square. Yablochkov's work, however, did not get any support from bureaucratic government bodies in tsarist Russia.

Pavel Yablochkov died in 1894 at the age of 47, when he was in the prime of a life of creative effort.

His name will always be remembered by the Soviet people—it is recorded in the history of Russian and world science.



TRETYAKOV STATE PICTURE GALLERY. MOSCOW



18TH CENTURY HALL OF RUSSIAN ART, TRETYAKOV STATE PICTURE GALLERY

ZAPOROZHTSI (DNIEPER COSSACKS)

ILYA REPIN



The ruins of the Repin Museum at Penaty destroyed by the Germans

The Germans destroyed 427 museums, among them the splendid museums of Leningrad, Smoleńsk, Stalin-grad, Novgorod, Poltava and others. . .

They wrecked the estate of the poet Pushkin in Mikhailovskoye, desecrated his grave and destroyed the neighbouring villages and the Svyatogorsk Monastery.

They destroyed the Leo Tolstoy estate and museum at Yasnaya Polyana, and desecrated the grave of the great writer. They destroyed the Chaikovsky Museum in Klin and the Repin Museum at Penaty, and many others.

(From the Indictment of the Major War Criminals Before the International Military Tribunal)

29

SEPTEMBER
1930

Ilya Repin
died

★

ILYA REPIN

(1844-1930)

ILYA EFIMOVICH REPIN was born into a peasant family in the town of Chuguev, Kharkov gubernia. He began studying painting under the local icon painters in Chuguev in 1858. He painted portraits of his relatives and friends, but his ambition was to enter the Academy of Arts. By the time he was 19, Repin had saved 100 rubles and set off for St. Petersburg where he studied at first in the art school operated by the Society for the Encouragement of Art, and later, in 1864, passed the entrance examinations and entered the Academy of Arts. In those years the Academy considered itself the guardian of the classical legacy in art and the works of its pupils dealt with historical and religious subjects that were a far cry from pressing contemporary problems. The progressive youth of the Academy felt keenly the conservatism of the educational system prevailing in the Academy, and in 1863 thirteen students rebelled. They refused to work on the mythological subjects required by the Academy Board of Directors for graduation examinations, and formed a "Brotherhood of Travelling Art Exhibitions" (the *Peredvizhniki*) who championed realism with an ideological content. Ilya Repin, who was closely acquainted with the *Peredvizhniki*, hungrily devoured the new principles of realistic art and worked ardently, forgetting all else. "No matter where I was," he wrote in a letter to the critic Stassov, "no matter what I did, or over whom I waxed enthusiastic, no matter what I was delighted with, it (art) was always in my mind, in my heart, my most desired and cherished ambition."

Though perfection in craftsmanship was for Repin the source of both happiness and travail, he would have regarded it as a grave insult to art to view it only as a play of colours and forms, without thought, without content, without idea. Ilya Repin was one of the most ardent champions of realistic art. Together with the *Peredvizhniki* group he introduced democratic realism into Russian art.

His picture, *The Volga Boatmen*, which he painted in 1870-73, is one of the most interesting creations of the Russian realistic school. It portrays eleven boatmen, strung out in pairs on the yellow sand, and straining with their shoulders, chest and bodies at a rope attached to a barge. Their sun-burned bodies are clad in picturesque tatters. An ex-soldier and a haggard young peasant form the leading pair of "draught animals," painfully struggling ahead. While portraying arduous labour and sympathizing with the downtrodden, the painter found not only physical but spiritual strength and beauty in his heroes—the boatmen "were strong, brave and unconquerable people." The optimism of his art made it surprisingly different from contemporary realistic painting. In the period when Russian art was beginning to depict subjects from everyday life, Repin created generalized images, and gave them full epic breadth.

Ilya Repin took part in the Academy competition for a painting on the theme *The Resurrection of Jairus' Daughter* and won a gold medal which carried with it a pension from the Academy and a trip abroad. In the spring of 1873 Repin left for Italy, stopping off in Paris on his way. In France he painted

the pictures *Sadko*, *Parisian Café* and a number of portraits.

In 1876 the painter returned to Russia and settled in his native town of Chuguev. Life in Russia enveloped him with unusual force. He went around collecting material and drawing sketches at weddings and markets, in churches, in squares and on the roads.

In 1877-83 Ilya Repin painted a big composition that contained a galaxy of national characters and which he called *The Procession of the Cross in Kursk Gubernia*. By the scope and depth of the idea and the number of diverse characters that it contains *The Procession* is a real epic picture. In it the painter showed feudal Russia, with its arbitrary and cruel autocracy sanctified by the church, and its oppressed and rightless people.

The heroic struggle of the Russian revolutionaries was reflected in several of Repin's paintings: *Under Escort* (1877)—a revolutionary is being exiled; *The Arrest of a Propagandist in the Countryside* (1878-89); *Refusal to Confess*, which shows a revolutionary who, though sentenced to death, refuses extreme unction (1882). The masterpiece of this series, *Unexpected Homecoming* (1883-84), shows the return of a revolutionary from exile, emaciated but unbroken. The *Peredvizhniki* displayed these paintings in various towns of Russia. In this manner did the painter, portraying only the truth, in the years of the darkest reaction show to the people those who were fighting for a better future for the country.

Ilya Repin also did a great deal of work on historical subjects. The painting (1885) portraying Tsar Ivan Grozny killing his son, has become especially well known. With great mastery Repin solved here a most difficult psychological problem. The sudden and unexpected nature of the act and Ivan's horror at his deed are vividly depicted. Contemporaries considered this painting a protest against the bloody terror of despotism.

The last historical picture, *The Zaporozhtsi* (Cossacks), was painted by Ilya Repin in 1878-91. In the centre of the picture we see the people, the Cossacks of Zaporozhye. They are shown writing a scornful letter to the Turkish Sultan who had proposed that they go over to him and accept the Mohammedan faith. The sturdy Cossacks of Zaporozhye, weatherbeaten by the southern sun and the steppe winds, are laughing noisily, each in accordance with his temperament. Contempt for the threat of coercion and an irrepressible will to freedom are expressed in this laughter. The painter's faith in the mighty strength of the people is vividly depicted in this painting.

Man, his character and inner world occupy the central place in Repin's paintings. Repin painted a very large number of portraits. Repin's portraits, with a few exceptions, are of the best sons of Russia—Leo Tolstoy, Turgenev, Gorky, Moussorgsky, Borodin, Rimsky-Korsakov, Rubinstein, Pirogov, Mendeleev, Ivan Pavlov.

The art of Ilya Repin, full of profound ideas, genuine optimism and deep love of the people, is greatly influencing Soviet painting; his art legacy is of the greatest value.



ALEXANDER GERASIMOV

ALEXANDER MIKHAILOVICH GERASIMOV was born in the little township of Kozlov (U.S.S.R.) in 1881. His father had intended him to follow a commercial career but the lad studied drawing secretly in the school run by Sergei Krivolutsky of the Academy of Arts. In 1903 he passed the entrance examination for the Moscow School of Painting and Sculpture where he studied under the famous Russian painters Arkhipov, Korovin and Serov. While he was still studying at the school, Gerasimov headed a movement of young painters who favoured realism and opposed formalism in art.

Since 1910 Alexander Gerasimov has been regularly hung at Moscow exhibitions. From the very beginning his pictures attracted the attention of visitors. The inspired and picturesque landscapes which gave the critics of that time good reason for calling him "the poet of spring," and the portraits that were astonishingly lifelike and redolent of the psychology of the sitter, brought Gerasimov wide fame as the standard-bearer of the realistic tradition in Russian art.

In 1925 Alexander Gerasimov moved to Moscow and gave

his time exclusively to easel painting, striving all the time to give worthy reflection to new Soviet themes. His work soon won him acknowledgment; he became one of the leading painters of the country. His pictures, *Lenin on the Tribune*, *Stalin at the 16th Congress of the Communist Party*, *Stalin and Voroshilov in the Kremlin* and his portraits of leading Soviet statesmen, scientists, artists and writers constitute a whole epoch in Soviet art.

Since 1925 Alexander Gerasimov has exhibited regularly abroad.

Apart from his work in the field of art, Alexander Gerasimov has extensive civic duties. He is Chairman of the Organizational Committee of the Union of Soviet Artists, a member of the Stalin Prize Selection Committee and President of the Fine Arts Section of the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries. Alexander Gerasimov is a Merited Worker of Art, People's Artist of the U.S.S.R. (since 1943) and has been awarded three Stalin Prizes—one each for the pictures *Stalin and Voroshilov in the Kremlin*, *A Hymn to October* and *Portrait of Our Oldest Artists*.

ALEXANDER DEINEKA

ALEXANDER ALEXANDROVICH DEINEKA, born in 1899, is one of the outstanding Russian artists whose talent developed in the Soviet period.

While attending the Moscow Art Institute, he devoted much time and effort to the production of placards, especially such as dealt with sports. As he was fond of sports himself, his portrayals of Soviet sportsmen were striking expressions of the true Soviet type. Of his earlier paintings, particularly well done are *Grand Pastime*, depicting young people engaged in an athletic contest on a river bank, and *Future Sportsmen*, showing two urchins eagerly watching a test flight of gliders.

During the war Deineka produced, in addition to a number of canvases on the heroic themes of the day, such as *Moscow in November 1941* and *The Defence of Sevastopol*, a great

number of Russian landscapes. He also applied his talents to sculpture. His creations in this field are dynamic in conception and brimming with enthusiasm for man's energy and strength.

Here, as in all his works, the artist's brilliant personality is strikingly manifest.

His pictures have been hung in all the big exhibitions throughout the Soviet Union and in the capitals of Europe and America.

Deineka, awarded the title of Merited Artist of the R.S.F.S.R., has been greatly instrumental in promoting Soviet art in his capacity of director of the State Institute of Decorative Arts, where he also holds a professorial chair, and as an active member of the Fine Arts Section of the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations With Foreign Countries.



Oil painting by M. Nesterov

VERA MUKHINA

THE NAME of Vera Ignatievna Mukhina, People's Sculptor of the U.S.S.R., is widely known both in the Soviet Union and abroad.

Vera Mukhina was born in Riga in 1889. The famous Moscow painters Yuon and Mashkov were her first art teachers.

In 1912 she went to Paris, entered the Academy of Arts and worked in the studio of the famous Burdelle.

During World War I, she composed her sculptural group *Mourning*, depicting a dead soldier lying on his mother's knees.

Mukhina turned to monumental art in the period of the revolution.

The sculptural group, *Worker and Peasant*, which crowned the building of the Soviet Pavilion at the 1937 International Exhibition in Paris, brought Mukhina world-wide recognition and fame.

The *Worker and Peasant* group earned Mukhina a Stalin Prize.

In 1938 the sculptress made the project of a monument to Maxim Gorky for erection in the city of Gorky where the great author spent his childhood.

In addition to monumental sculpture, Vera Mukhina also works on busts, and during the last few years she has produced a gallery of busts of famous people of the Soviet Union.

In 1942 the sculptress was awarded a Stalin Prize for the busts of Heroes of the Patriotic War Colonels Yusupov and Khizhnyak.

Her best work in this field is the bust of the famous scientist and shipbuilder, Academician A. Krylov. Mukhina used a plastic medium, wood, for her carving of the thinker, producing a bust that is fascinating and inspiring and which portrays a noble spirit. It was acclaimed one of the best works displayed at the 1946 All-Union Art Exhibition.

FYODOR FYODOROVSKY

FYODOR FYODOROVICH FYODOROVSKY, born in 1883 in Chernigov, Ukraine, is a contemporary Russian painter who has dedicated himself to the theatre. He was graduated from the Decorative Arts Department of the Stroganov Art School in Moscow, and was greatly influenced by the eminent Russian painter Mikhail Vrubel, whose monumental and decorative compositions had a lasting effect upon the younger Russian artists.

Fyodorovsky has a deep love and understanding of Russian music. His extensive travels about old Russian cities gave him an excellent knowledge of the Russian decorative style. When he paints the sets for an opera he employs all his skill to help the spectator obtain a finer insight into the ideas of the composer. He excels in the solemn, majestic style.

In 1907 Fyodorovsky was already ranked among the fore-

most stage artists of Russia. In 1913 he won international recognition with his decors for Moussorgsky's opera *Hovan-shchina* staged in Paris.

During the past few decades he has produced some of the best stage decorations in the country. He is the house artist of the Moscow Academic Bolshoi Theatre and the Kirov Opera Theatre of Leningrad.

Fyodorovsky's scenery for the operas *Prince Igor*, *Sadko* and *Pskovityanka* at the Bolshoi Theatre, and for the Kirov Theatre's production of the operas *The Enchantress*, *Ivan Susanin* and *Emelyan Pugachev* are notable.

The artist was awarded Stalin Prizes for *Prince Igor* and *Emelyan Pugachev*. In 1943 the title of People's Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. was bestowed upon him. He also holds the title of Merited Worker of Art.

SERGEI GERASIMOV

SERGEI VASSILIEVICH GERASIMOV was born in the little town of Mozhaishk, near Moscow, in 1885.

At the age of fifteen Gerasimov entered the Stroganov Art School in Moscow and later studied at the School of Painting, Sculpture and Architecture from which he was graduated in 1912 as an art instructor. He has been teaching art ever since then and is today director of the Moscow Institute of Art where he also holds a professorial chair.

After the October Revolution a new period in the life of Sergei Gerasimov began. In the Soviet period he showed himself an accomplished master of the lyrical Russian landscape; he was a keen observer of the new way of life who produced a number of large canvases on social subjects.

"I have worked hard all these years," says the artist. "I have painted pictures that were to me a great and responsible undertaking—pictures like *The Partisan Oath* in which I tried to express the strength and invincible might of the spirit

of the people, and *Collective-Farm Holiday* in which I did my best to incorporate the feeling of gladness coming from socialist labour in the collective-farm fields; I have also painted many landscapes of my native country."

During the war Sergei Gerasimov painted his *Mother of a Partisan*, a courageous and strong-willed Russian peasant woman and his *Pugachev*, depicting the 18th-century uprising of the Russian peasantry against the oppression of feudal landlords.

Since 1922 Gerasimov's pictures have been hung in many exhibitions in the Soviet Union and abroad.

Gerasimov holds the titles of Merited Worker of Art and People's Artist of the R.S.F.S.R. He is Chairman of the Moscow Branch of the Union of Soviet Artists and a member of the Fine Arts Section of the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries.



TRIO OF CARTOONISTS AND ILLUSTRATORS (*right to left*): M. KUPRIYANOV, P. KRYLOV AND N. SOKOLOV

KUKRYNIKS

KUKRYNIKS is a joint name adopted by three artists—Mikhail Kupriyanov, Porfiri Krylov and Nikolai Sokolov, who are very different from one another in their individual artistic qualities, pictorial art and temperament.

Not one of them has yet reached forty-five. All three were students of the Moscow Higher School of Art. They attended lectures together and their easels stood in a row in the studio. Their talents developed during the years of Soviet rule, years pregnant with great political and social events. Another factor that prompted the artists to combine their aptitudes was that each of them was endowed with the characteristic features inherent in clever cartoonists and caustic satirists.

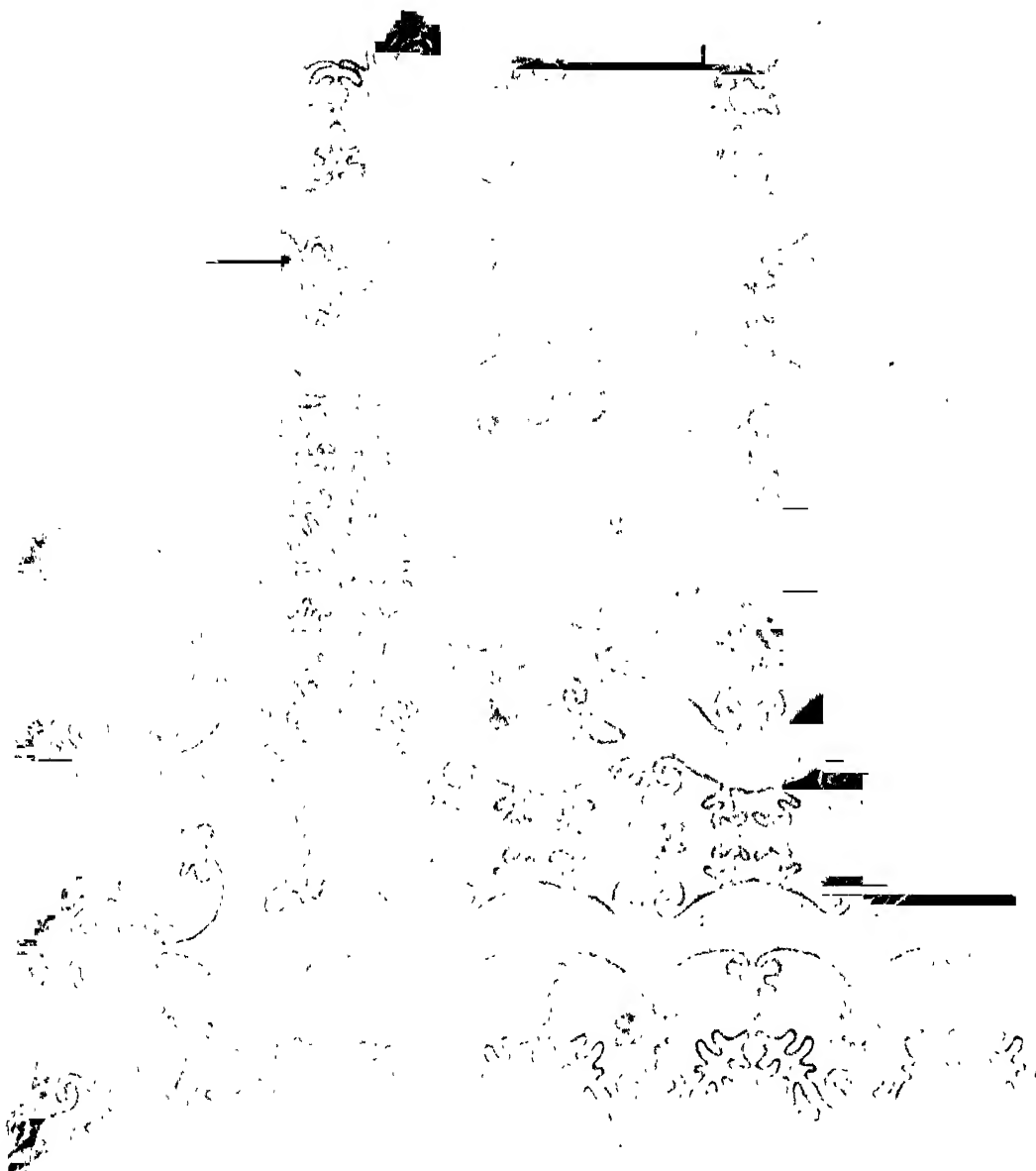
For their satirical drawings and political caricatures Kukryniksy have found a vigorous and biting, yet stringent and discreet graphic expression which invariably hits the target. The force of their satirical compositions lies in their ability to treat a subject with vivid simplicity, unencumbered with accessory detail. They ridicule and lash everything that arouses their indignation, contempt or resentment. The politi-

cal placards which they created during the war, loaded with hate and scorn for the enemy, found lively response among Soviet people both at the front and in the rear.

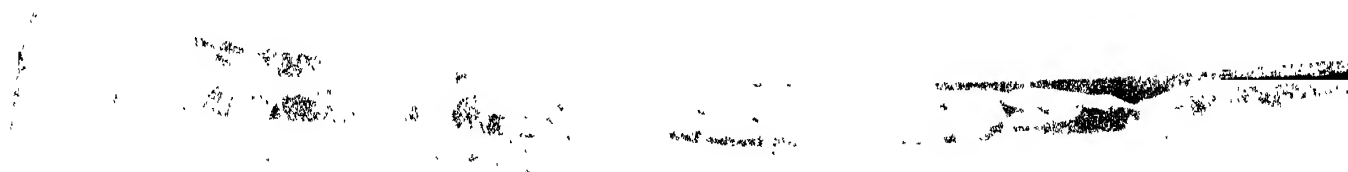
Kukryniksy do not confine themselves, however, to caricatures only. They are thoughtful painters, deft with the entire range of colours. They have been prolific and successful in the painting of portraits, landscapes and still life and are also excellent illustrators of Russian classics, particularly the books of Anton Chekhov, Leo Tolstoy and Mikhail Saltykov-Shchedrin.

During the war the trio painted a number of large pictures, the best of which include *Zoya Kosmodemyanskaya*—depicting the heroic feat of the young Soviet girl-partisan, and *Capitulation of Germany*, picturing the signing of the act of unconditional surrender in Berlin.

Mikhail Kupriyanov, Porfiri Krylov and Nikolai Sokolov have each been awarded the title of Merited Worker of Art of the R.S.F.S.R. For their political posters and caricatures, Kukryniksy have twice won Stalin Prizes.



Hand-made lace counterpane by Kutepova, of the village of Puchkovo, Vologda region, R.S.F.S.R.



Whale hunting. Coloured engraving on a walrus tusk by Master-Engraver Ichel

ARTS AND CRAFTS OF THE PEOPLES OF THE U.S.S.R.

THE ARTS and crafts of the peoples of the Soviet Union are extraordinarily varied and have deservedly won world-wide fame. Handed down from generation to generation the age-old national decorative and applied arts have preserved their art traditions and the skill of the best masters to this day.

Remarkable artist craftsmen, who paint world-famous pictures on lacquered papier-maché articles—boxes, caskets, cigarette and tobacco cases, powder boxes—work in the artists' co-operatives of the villages of Palekha, Mstera and Kholui—all once famous for their iconographers. These villages are near the ancient Russian city of Vladimir on the Klyazma (Vladimir region). Thematically, these miniatures represent scenes from the works of great Russian writers, the heroic past and present of the Russian people, portraits of favourite leaders, battle scenes from the Great Patriotic War. The outstanding productions of the craftsmen of these three villages include the late Ivan Golikov's *Lay of Igor's Regiment*, based on the plot recorded in a most ancient Russian chronicle, Ivan Vakurov's *Devils*, based on Alexander Pushkin's poem of the same name, Ivan Markichev's pictures of women, Nikolai Klykov's landscapes and the *Captain's Daughter*, based on Pushkin's story, Alexander Kotyagin's *Chelyuskin Camp*, Alexander Bryagin's *Harvest* and Konstantin Kosterin's *Defence of the U. S. S. R.*

The craftsmen of the village of Fedoskino, near Moscow, also paint on papier-maché. Traditional Russian three-horse sleighs, the "troikas," "tea-drinking" scenes and village ing-dances formerly prevailed in their themes. In post-revolutionary years the Fedoskino artists turned more often to contemporary themes and subjects portrayed in popular pictures of outstanding Russian artists. Craftsman Alexei Kruglikov is known for his remarkable miniature *Kremlin*, Mikhail Papenov—for his landscapes, Ivan Semyonov—for the portrait of Sergei Kirov, one of the greatest Soviet statesmen. The young artist Smurov has reproduced a fine portrait of Joseph Stalin from Alexander Gerasimov's painting.

Fine household utensils are made by the national craftsmen of Khokhloma (Gorky region). A bright flower and leaf ornament against a golden background is the distinguishing feature of Khokhloma painting. One of the oldest masters of Khokhloma, Nikolai Podogov, is now working as an instructor in a rural art school where he is training new craftsmen.

The Zagorsk district of Moscow region has been known for its artistic woodwork since the 15th century. Various wooden boxes, ladles, small caskets carved with geometrical patterns, are now made in the village of Kudrino. The Vornoskovs, father and sons, are the outstanding Zagorsk woodcarvers of Soviet time; they have developed their own "Vornoskov" ornamental style. Craftsmen of the village of Bogorodskoye make wooden toys and complex wooden sculpture groups. Domestic animals and scenes from the works of the famous Russian fable writer, Ivan Krylov, form their favourite themes. During the Great Patriotic War the Bogorodskoye craftsmen, who fought in the battles for Stalingrad, carved scenes from these battles in wood. Ivan Stulov and Alexander Pronin are the most prominent Bogorodskoye craftsmen.

Besides the above-mentioned districts, woodcarving is popular in Karelia, Chuvashia and the Kirov, Gorky and Archangel regions. Uzbekistan, where the rich decorative motifs of Oriental art prevail, is well known for its interesting paintings on wood.

The art of carving in ivory is widespread in the north of the Soviet Union—in the Lomonosov Craftsmen's Co-operative

(the village of Kholmogory, Archangel region), in the Tobolsk district in Siberia and in Chukotka. The craftsmen of the Lomonosov co-operative make cups, vases, small caskets and miniature sculptures in the round from walrus and mammoth tusks, decorating them with a lace-like carved ornament. The young craftsman Parfyon Chernikovich, who won first prize at a 1945 contest for his fine vase *Nature and Life of the North*, exhibited a beautiful cup with a portrait of Stalin the following year in Moscow. At the same time Parfyon Chernikovich's teacher, Anatoli Shtang, made two fine cups, one with scenes from the Great Patriotic War and the other with portraits of famous Russians. Carvings in ivory depicting the life of the people and the animals of the North is widespread in the Tobolsk district, while the craftsmen of Chukotka specialize in carving small figures of animals from walrus tusks and making coloured engravings depicting the life of the Northern people and hunting scenes. The craftsman Onno has made superb coloured engravings on walrus tusks entitled *Celebration of Victory Day in Chukotka* and *How We Shall Live After the War*.

Popular art in the Soviet Union produces extraordinarily beautiful textile articles. Art embroidery is widespread almost everywhere in the Soviet Union and is distinguished for its variety of technique and geometric or flower ornaments. Mainly red shades prevail in the art embroidery of the North, but toward the South the embroidery becomes increasingly more polychromatic and brighter, becoming particularly colourful in the famous Ukrainian towels and Uzbek embroideries.

The fine Vologda laces and embroideries, the gold-thread embroidery on velvet and silk of the women of Kalinin region, the art textiles of the Krolevets craftsmen in the Ukraine and the magnificent Central-Asiatic and Caucasian rugs with their ornamental patterns and portraits are known far beyond the borders of the Soviet Union.

The Daghestan mountain village of Kubachi is famous for its fine jewellery and magnificently decorated weapons. The local craftsmen decorate weapons with a fine ornament or interwoven Oriental patterns chased, carved or engraved. The young craftsman Rasul Alikhanov has become particularly famous in recent years. He was only fifteen years old when his Caucasian belt (chased and engraved) was displayed at the Paris Exhibition in 1937.

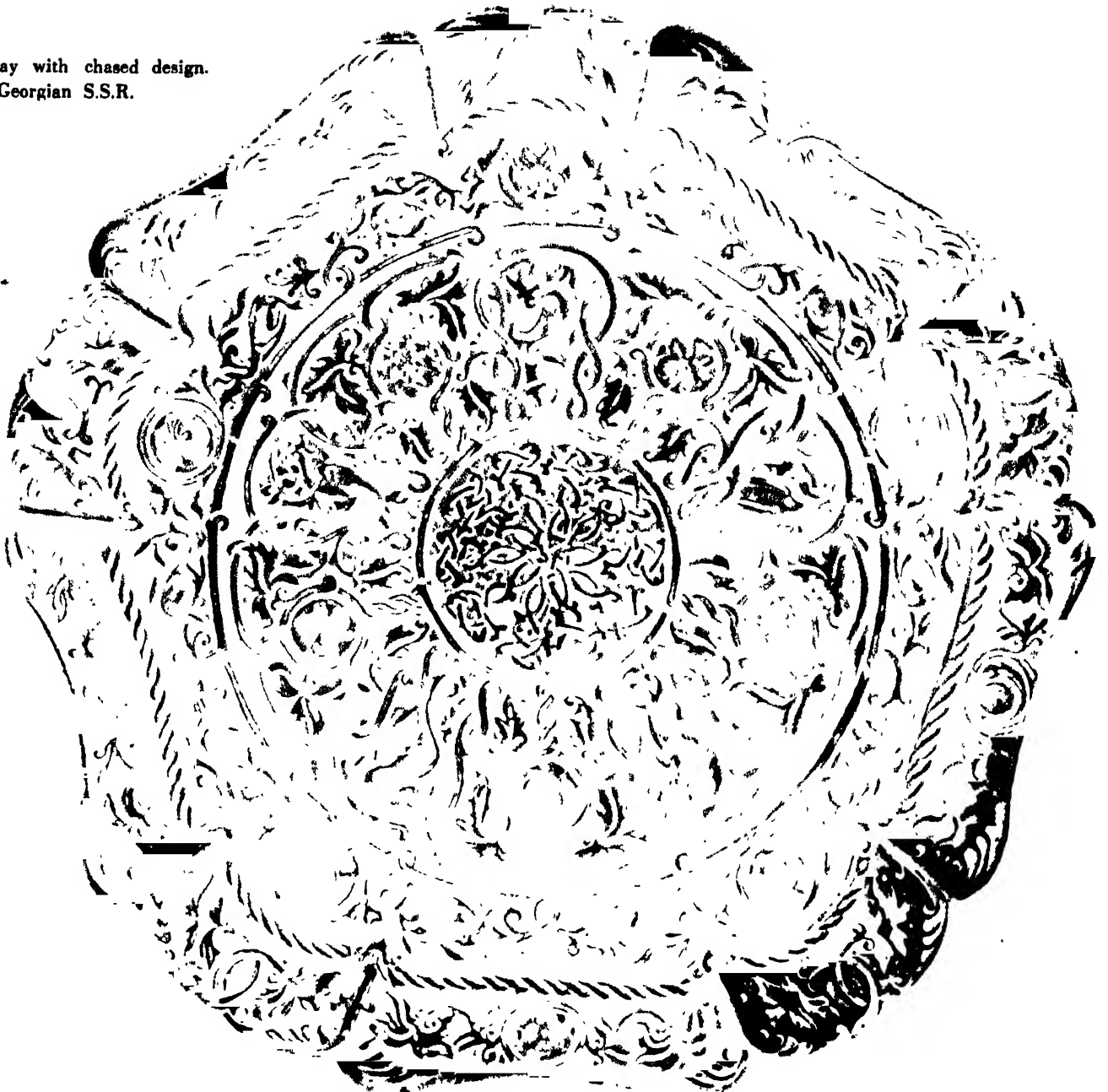
The decorative and applied folk arts made great progress in the U.S.S.R. after the Great October Revolution freed the craftsmen from exploitation and offered them extensive opportunities for artistic development.

Numerous craftsmen's co-operatives came into being; they now own well-equipped shops, clubs, schools and crèches. Professional art schools in which gifted boys and girls are taught have been opened in the principal districts in which these crafts prevail. The widely practised system of placing special orders for works of art aids in the cultural and professional development of the craftsmen.

Competitive exhibitions for the best works in the folk arts, with awards and prizes for outstanding craftsmen, are held from time to time both in Moscow and in the districts where these crafts prevail. Competitions between individual craftsmen, craft co-operatives and even whole districts produce some outstanding work of folk art. The Arts and Crafts Research Institute in Moscow studies the styles and technique of folk art and aids in its all-round development.

The handicraft articles produced by the peoples of the U.S.S.R. constitute one of the export items of the Soviet Union.

Metal tray with chased design.
Georgian S.S.R.



NAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHAL, IN



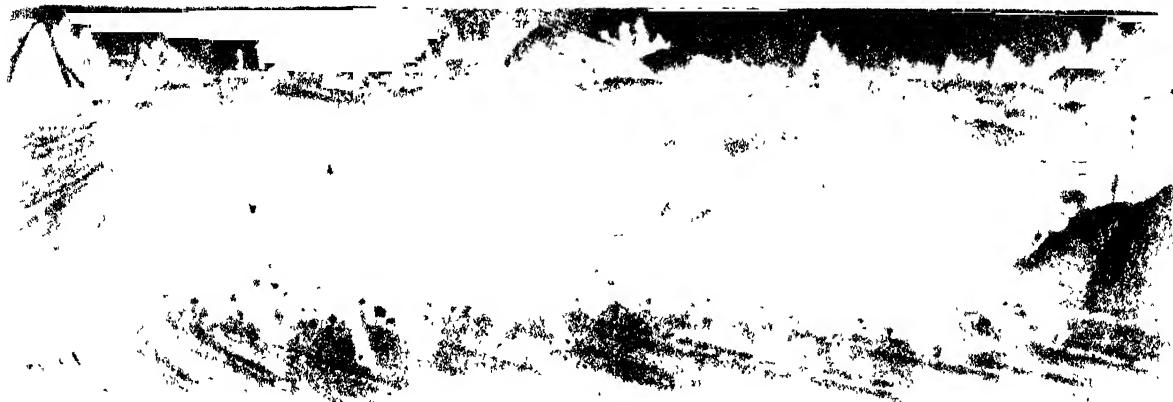
A bear carved
of mammoth tusk.
Chukotsk, R.S.F.S.R.



Open work vase carved of mammoth tusk
By M. Sinkova,
Kholmogory, Archangel region, R.S.F.S.R.



Carving on bone depicting an attack led by Suvorov
By Mikhail Rakov, Moscow



Troika. Shown at the "150 Years of Fedoskin Miniatures" exhibition
By I. Semyonov, Feduskino, Moscow region, R.S.F.S.R.



NIKOLAI OSTROVSKY



NIKOLAI OSTROVSKY

(1904-1936)

NIKOLAI ALEXEYEVICH OSTROVSKY lived a strenuous and heroic life. Hard physical work in childhood was followed by participation in the revolutionary struggle and Civil War, and later by work in railway shops and activity in a Young Communist League organization. In 1927 Ostrovsky became completely incapacitated as a result of shell shock and wounds received earlier at the front: paralysis set in and he lost his eyesight and hearing. He was a fiery spokesman and patriot of the Soviet Union and could not live without working for the consolidation of the Soviet system. Overcoming the enormous difficulties of his physical condition, Nikolai Ostrovsky began to write. He worked tirelessly to the end of his days, lived the intense life of his epoch, deriving from it his strength, courage, enthusiasm and Bolshevik passion.

In 1928, Ostrovsky wrote his first story—a story about the division led by Kotovsky, the Civil War hero, but the only copy of the manuscript was lost. His second book was, according to its author, “intended as a response to the appeal of the Young Communist League to Soviet writers to create an image of the young revolutionary of our epoch.” He called it *How the Steel Was Tempered*.

Against the background of a broad historical picture, Nikolai Ostrovsky revealed the wealth and beauty of the spiritual world of a man of the Soviet epoch. In the person of Pavel Korchagin, the writer created an unsurpassed image of a hero

of our time. “Man’s dearest possession is his life, and it must be so lived that in departing a man may say: my whole life and all my strength have been devoted to the noblest pursuit in the world—the struggle for the liberation of mankind.” These words of Korchagin, expressing the principal motive of Ostrovsky’s life and work, became the motto of Soviet youth. The image of Pavel Korchagin exercised tremendous influence on the formation of the character of young Soviet people.

In 1934, Nikolai Ostrovsky began to work on a trilogy, entitled *Born of the Storm*; it was conceived as an anti-fascist novel, but he was able to complete only the first part. In *Born of the Storm*, the author created a gallery of fine characters, young revolutionaries who participated in the struggle for liberation in the Ukraine and Poland in 1918. Premature death cut short the work of a talented writer.

In the U.S.S.R. the novel *How the Steel Was Tempered* has been published in 42 languages (116 editions) and *Born of the Storm*—in 36 languages (93 editions). Abroad the novel *How the Steel Was Tempered* has been published in 18 languages (26 editions) and *Born of the Storm*—in 12 languages (13 editions).

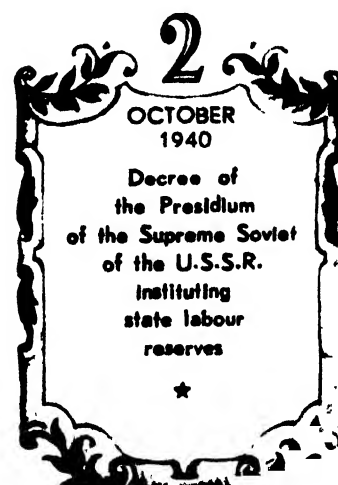
During the Great Patriotic War, Nikolai Ostrovsky’s books inspired the soldiers of the Soviet Army, the guerillas and the working youth in their fight and their work for the freedom and happiness of their socialist country.

OCTOBER

- OCTOBER 2, 1940** *Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. on State Labour Reserves of the U.S.S.R.*
- OCTOBER 3, 1945** *World Trade Union Conference in Paris unanimously adopted Statute of World Federation of Trade Unions.*
- OCTOBER 13, 1944** *Soviet Army liberated Riga, capital of Latvian S.S.R., from German invaders.*
- OCTOBER 14, 1924** *Tajik Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic formed. It became a Union Republic of the U.S.S.R. in 1929.*
- OCTOBER 15, 1946** *Concluding session of the Paris Peace Conference.*
- OCTOBER 20, 1944** *Units of Soviet Army, jointly with Yugoslav People's Army of Liberation, freed Belgrade, capital of Yugoslavia, from German invaders.*
- OCTOBER 23, 1917** *Date of historical meeting of Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party, with Lenin and Stalin taking part, which adopted Lenin's resolution calling for an armed uprising.*
- OCTOBER 23, 1946** *Session of UNO General Assembly opened in New York.*
- OCTOBER 25, 1922** *Liberation of Vladivostok by Soviet troops. Liquidation of Whiteguard armies and Japanese intervention in the Far East.*
- OCTOBER 27, 1924** *Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic was formed.*
- OCTOBER 27, 1924** *Turkmen Soviet Socialist Republic was formed.*
- OCTOBER 29, 1917** *Date of enlarged meeting of the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party, with Lenin and Stalin taking part, which elected the Party Centre for directing the uprising, headed by Stalin.*
- OCTOBER 31, 1925** *Mikhail Frunze, brilliant general of the Soviet Army and one of the leaders of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet state, died.*



THE FITTERS' WORKSHOP AT A TRADE SCHOOL
IN MOSCOW



Pupils of a trade school in Minsk, capital of Byelorussia, helping
to rebuild their native city. In the background—the Ballet and
Opera Theatre. 1946

VOCATIONAL TRAINING OF YOUNG WORKERS IN THE U.S.S.R.

THE RANKS of the working class of the U.S.S.R. are being augmented systematically and in a planned manner. This is achieved by the system of State Labour Reserves with its Trade, Railway, and Factory Schools instituted in October 1940 by a Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. "The further growth of our industry," the Decree reads in part, "demands a steady influx of fresh labour power into the mining industry, the railways, and the factories and mills. Without an unintermittent replenishment of the ranks of the working class the effective development of our industry will not be possible."

Unemployment in the Soviet Union has been eliminated for all times, and poverty and destitution in the towns and villages are things of the past. In the U.S.S.R. there are no workers knocking at the factory gates in a futile attempt to obtain employment, there is no permanent labour reserve army for industry to draw on.

The government must therefore provide vocational training for the urban and village youth in an organized manner so as to assure a steady supply of labour to industry and transport.

Both the Trade and Railway Schools admit boys and girls of 14-15 years of age. The study course lasts two years. In the Trade Schools of Applied Arts the course lasts three years. After the war, special trade schools were opened for war orphans.

The Factory Schools enrol young people who are given a course of training lasting from six months to one year, depending on the vocation. These schools train workers of the common trades.

All the pupils are provided with clothing and board free of charge and, those who require it, with dormitories. There is no charge for tuition.

The pupils, moreover, receive the pay provided by the wage scale if engaged in the execution of factory orders or in jobs on construction, in coal mining or metal smelting during their course of training.

All the trade schools and many of the factory schools have well-equipped workshops of their own.

Russian, mathematics, draftsmanship, technical designing, chemistry and physics are part of the training schools' curricula. The pupils are taught everything about the technology of industrial processes and about the material they handle which a modern skilled worker must know. The training and education of the younger generation of the working class is entrusted to tens of thousands of experienced engineers, skilled workers and teachers.

At graduation, the pupil must pass an examination before a special commission including, besides their teachers, rep-

resentatives of the Ministry of Labour Reserves and of the enterprises where the young workers will be employed.

The distribution of the young workers among the industrial enterprises proceeds in accordance with a government plan.

Beginning with 1946, the graduates of the Trade and Factory Schools receive on the completion of their course a government loan of 2,000 rubles repayable over a period of two years.

The role and significance of this planned system of training workers were particularly evident during the Great Patriotic War.

The vocational schools did not cease operating during the grim days of the war, and the government was able to send over two million young workers from the State Labour Reserves system into industry and transport.

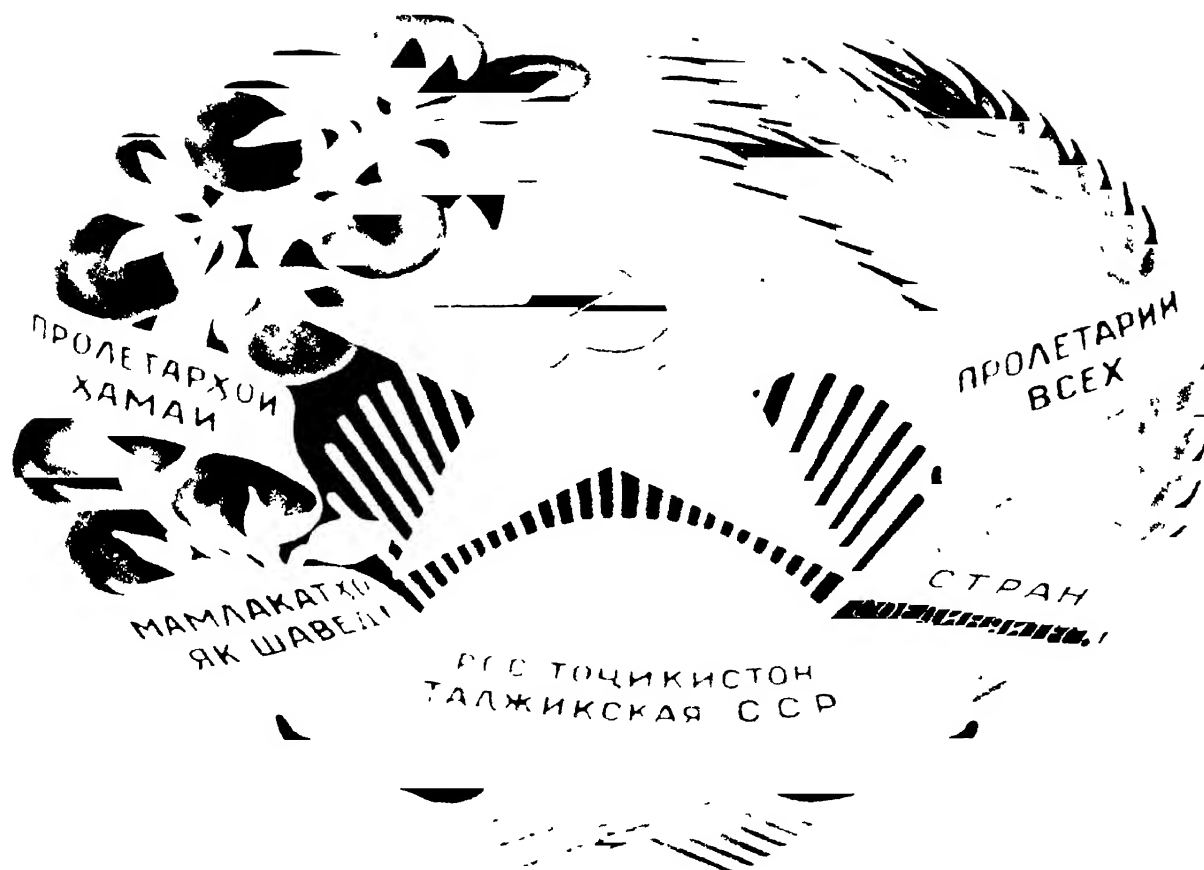
The young workers were sent in large groups of hundreds and thousands to factories and mills where they replaced the men who had left for the front, or filled the shops of newly-constructed plants.

Graduates of the vocational schools will be found today in thousands of plants throughout the country. The bulk of them are now experienced workers who fulfil and overfulfil production rates. Hundreds of boys and girls have been promoted to positions of foremen, team leaders and shop superintendents. Many of them have been awarded Orders and Medals of the Soviet Union for their devoted work in the days of war.

Joseph Stalin highly praised the heroic and selfless work of the young generation of the working class in the course of the war. His words filled the hearts of the boys and girls with satisfaction and deep pride.

The question of labour reserves has been assigned an important part in the new post-war Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy of the U.S.S.R. It is provided that about 27,000,000,000 rubles will be expended from the State Budget on the training of new labour contingents in the vocational schools of the Ministry of Labour Reserves within the next five years. More than 1,200 new Trade, Railway, and Factory Schools will be added to the existing network. The schools are scheduled to train 4,500,000 skilled workers *i.e.*, double the number of the previous five years. This figure is to include 785,000 persons for the coal mining and oil industries, 516,000 for the metallurgical plants, 653,000 for the building industry, 500,000 for the railways and 250,000 for the textile industry.

The new millions of young industrial workers will constitute a tremendous force that, together with the older workers, will ensure the success of the Five-Year Plan and secure the further growth of the Soviet Union's industrial power.



***The Arms
of the Tajik Soviet Socialist
Republic***

TAJIK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE TAJIK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC, occupying an area of 143,000 square kilometres, is situated in the southeast of Soviet Central Asia and borders on Sinkiang, China's westernmost province, and on Afghanistan. Its population is 1,500,000, most of whom are Tajiks, a people that has long been sedentary and engaged in agriculture. The republic is also inhabited by Russians, Kirghiz and Uzbeks.

Before the Great October Socialist Revolution, the vast majority of the population of modern Tajikistan lived in what was then called the Bukhara Emirate, a colony of tsarist Russia. The Tajik people were cruelly exploited by the local feudal lords and the tsarist officials. Only an insignificant portion of the harvest they gathered remained in the possession of the Tajik peasants, who were overwhelmed by an infinity of taxes. There were practically no industrial establishments in pre-revolutionary Tajikistan.

The Great October Socialist Revolution freed the Tajik people of national oppression and of feudal and capitalist exploitation.

In 1924, a Tajik Autonomous Soviet Republic was formed which in 1929 was transformed into a Union Republic, a constituent member of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Under Soviet rule Tajikistan has experienced vast economic and cultural changes. The policy of industrialization has resulted in the comprehensive utilization of the country's natural resources: oil, shale, arsenic, tungsten, antimony, tin, phosphorites, common salt. The republic's production of non-ferrous and rare metals occupies an important place in the U.S.S.R. It has been placed upon a modern industrial basis.

The country is dotted with cotton ginneries, silk mills, clothing and leather goods establishments and canneries. A metal-working industry has now been established in the republic for the first time.

In Stalinabad, the capital, huge new industrial plants have sprung up: an immense textile mill, a meat-packing plant and a cement works. Powerful hydroelectric power stations have been erected at Varzob and Khorog.

During the Five-Year Plan periods a transport system has been established which put an end to the dearth of transport facilities so characteristic of pre-revolutionary Tajikistan. A railway line now extends to Stalinabad. New highways have been laid across the mountains, particularly important among which is the automobile road stretching for 567 kilometres from Osh to Khorog, chief city of the Gorno-Badakhshan region. It has enabled the mountainous districts of the region that formerly were isolated from the outside world, particularly during winter and spring, to embark upon an era of economic and cultural advancement.

Before the establishment of Soviet power, modern Tajikistan had but one city—Khojent, renowned for its mosques and tombs. It has now been turned into a well-planned centre of the industrial Leninabad region. The former *kishlak* Dushambe with a population of a few hundred has grown into the beautiful capital Stalinabad. Khorog, Kurgan-Tube, Kulyab and Kanibadam are the names of some other new towns. In the mountains, where formerly no human foot trod ground, electric lights now gleam in the various settlements.

The victory of the collective-farm system ensured prosperity to the countryside of the republic. The collective-farm fields are worked by 3,500 tractors and hundreds of combines and trucks.

Tajikistan has become one of the important cotton areas of the Soviet Union, particularly because of its production of the long-fibre breed. Since the revolution, the area grown to cotton has increased fourfold and gross cotton harvest figures five-and-a-half-fold. Much has been done by way of irrigation to develop cotton growing.

In a short period of time two huge canals, the Vakhsh and the Big Hissar, as well as others have been built. The old irrigation system has been restored and made fit for use. The irrigation network now comprises 31,600 kilometres of canals, while the irrigated area exceeds 320,000 hectares. Formerly lifeless deserts are now covered with habitations

and gardens. There is a flourishing cotton region in the formerly arid valley of the Vakhsh.

The Tajik Republic has registered great progress in the domains of culture and art.

Before the revolution, only one Tajik out of 200 knew how to read and write. Today illiteracy has been almost completely abolished. Universal elementary education has been introduced. About 3,000 schools are functioning in the republic, and there are seven institutions of higher education and 20 technical schools. A native intelligentsia has arisen and each year sees an increasing number of Tajiks becoming teachers, doctors, agronomists, engineers and scientists. In Stalinabad there is a branch of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. and an arid sub-tropics research institute.

During the years of Soviet power the Tajik State Publishing House has put out 42,272,000 copies of books and pamphlets. Many classics of Russian and world literature have been published in the Tajik language.

To meet the increasing cultural demands of the working people of Tajikistan, the republic has placed at their service 13 theatres, about 150 cinemas, 375 clubs, four museums and 736 libraries housing about 2,000,000 books. The emancipation of the Tajik women, who before the revolution were leading a life of seclusion, was a great cultural achievement of the Soviet government.

In the last war the Tajiks fearlessly defended their Soviet homeland. More than 10,000 Tajiks have been awarded Orders and Medals, and upon the 34 most intrepid of the republic's warriors the title of Hero of the Soviet Union has been conferred.

Those who remained in the rear came to the aid of the front with self-sacrificing toil. Tajikistan supplied the Soviet industry and army during the war with cotton, grain, meat, coal and oil.

The new Stalin Five-Year Plan opens up to the Tajik republic the prospect of further rapid economic and cultural growth. Capital investments will total 1,200,000,000 rubles. In the course of 1946-50, the republic will witness the construction of new, mainly hydroelectric, power stations of an aggregate capacity of 28,000 kw. In 1950, the republic's power stations will yield 180,000,000 kwh. In that year the production of cotton fabrics will reach 17,800,000 metres of silk fabrics, three times the 1946 figure. In 1950, 440,000 tons of coal and 60,000 tons of oil will be extracted. Industrial production in Tajikistan in 1950 will exceed the pre-war level by 56 per cent.

The new Five-Year Plan envisages a considerable rise in agricultural production, principally cotton.


For this purpose the irrigation system in the Hissar valley will be reconstructed and the Vakhsh valley irrigation scheme completed. The Vakhsh valley will thus become one of the country's biggest long-fibre cotton bases, and the irrigated area will be enlarged by 17,800 hectares.

Huge funds have been assigned by the Soviet government to raise the standard of life of the working people of Tajikistan, by an increase in housing accommodations, expansion of municipal services, and an improvement in the general everyday services for the population. The advancement of science, culture and art has been assigned an important place in the Five-Year Plan.

In 1925 J. V. Stalin wrote in his greetings to the Tajik people on the occasion of the formation of the Tajik Soviet Republic:

"The Tajiks have a rich history. Their great organizing and political talents in the past are no secret to anyone. Leading workers of Tajikistan! Raise the cultural level of your country, develop its economy, help the working people of town and country, rally around you the finest sons of your native land and show the whole East that by firmly holding in your hands the banner of liberation you are worthy of your ancestry."

These precepts of the leader of the Soviet peoples have been put into effect. During the Five-Year Plan periods, Soviet Tajikistan has been transformed into an advanced, socialist republic making excellent progress in the domains of economy and culture.

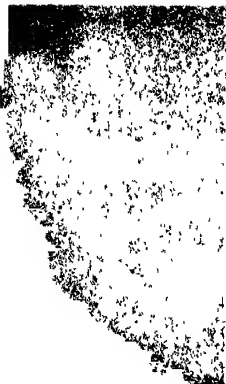


NAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR

LAKHUTI STREET IN STAEINABAD, CAPITAL
OF THE TAJIK S.S.R.



Mine No. 5 of the Shurabugol Coal Trust, Isfarin district,
Leninabad region

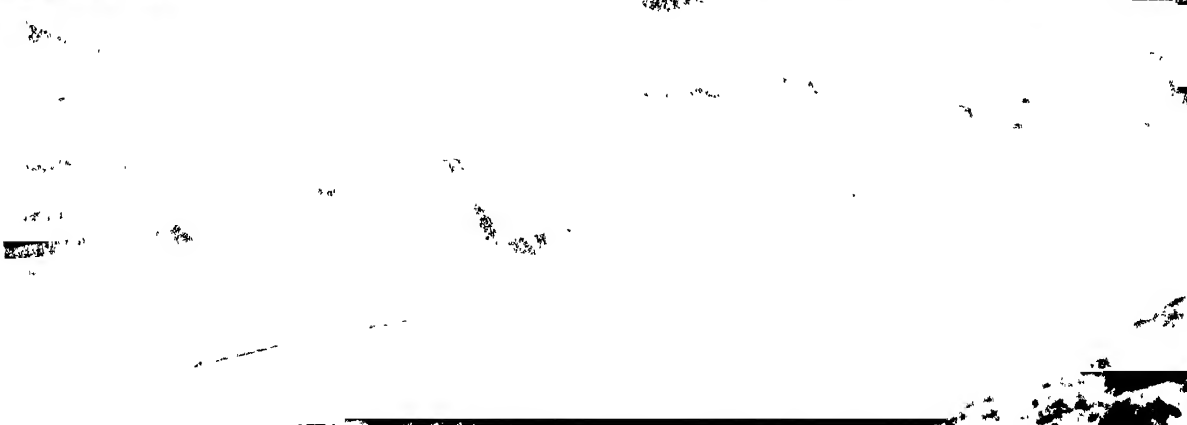


Elderly Tajiks in an aeroplane

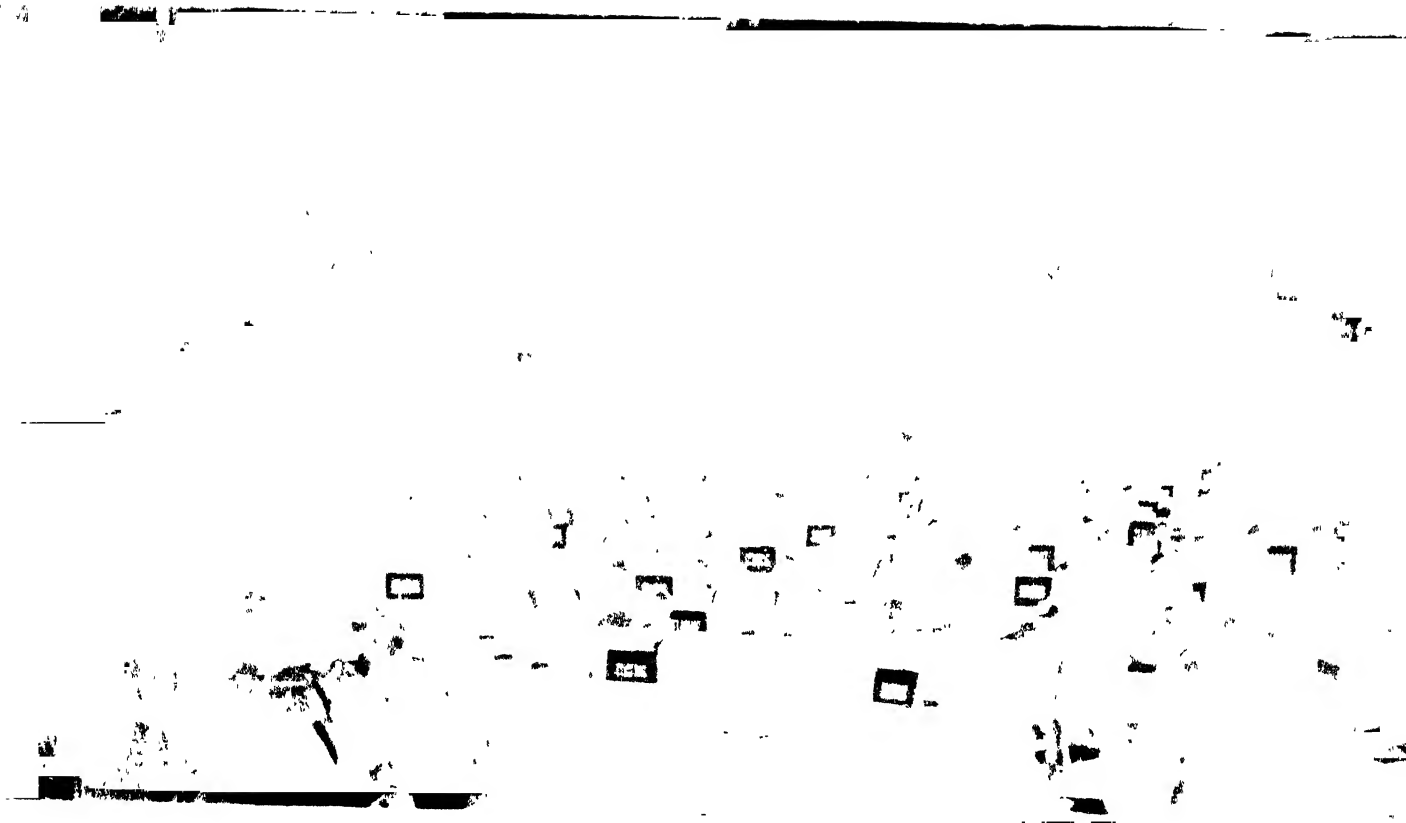


The Great Pamir Highway

**Students of the Geology Department of the Pedagogical Institute
in Stalinabad experimenting in a laboratory**



COTTON BALES AT THE STALIN COLLECTIVE FARM, VAKHSH VALLEY, TAJIK S.S.R.



PARIS PEACE CONFERENCE. V. M. MOLOTOV, HEAD OF THE SOVIET
DELEGATION, DELIVERING A SPEECH. 1946



FROM THE SPEECH
DELIVERED BY V. M. MOLOTOV
at the Paris Peace Conference
on October 14, 1946

THE SOVIET UNION is true to its program of fighting for lasting peace and security, defending the principles of honest co-operation among nations. Not long ago you heard the voice of the great Stalin, firm and calm, ring out over the whole world. J. V. Stalin, the head of the Soviet government, said that he undoubtedly believed in the possibility of friendly and lasting co-operation between the Soviet Union and the Western democracies, despite the existence of ideological differences, and that he also believed in "friendly competition" between the two systems.

Such is the general line of the Soviet Union's foreign policy.

This policy is not new. As far back as November 6, 1944, when the Allies were waging a bitter struggle against Hitler Germany and imperialist Japan, J. V. Stalin, the great leader of the Soviet land, said, referring to the establishment of the United Nations Organization:

"Can we count on the activities of this international organization being sufficiently effective? They will be effective if the Great Powers who have borne the brunt of the burden of the war against Hitler Germany continue to act in a spirit of unanimity and harmony. They will not be effective if this essential condition is violated."

At that time these statements appeared absolutely indisputable to all of us. In no democratic country were any objections voiced to this statement by the head of the Soviet government. But the war is over. The Soviet army has performed its epoch-making task. New sentiments have made their appearance. Attempts are now being made to steer matters into different channels. Attempts are sometimes made to use even the Peace Conference in the interests of a definite dominant group, and it is evidently intended to make even the United Nations Organization serve these ends. We are not going to help in this. The Soviet Union will oppose all attempts to divert the United Nations Organization from its main path, from its task of organizing co-operation among the peace-loving countries in accordance with the aims of general security for the nations.

The Soviet Union stands for co-operation among all nations, for co-operation among countries great and small, based on the principles of equality and recognition of the legitimate interests of the large and small states. Such are the principles of democratic co-operation among nations to the defence of which we shall be true to the end. And we know that this is the only correct policy.



Painting by Lupov

MEETING OF THE CENTRAL COMMITTEE OF THE BOLSHEVIK PARTY, OCTOBER 23 (10), 1917



HISTORIC MEETING OF THE CENTRAL COMMITTEE OF THE BOLSHEVIK PARTY

ON OCTOBER 7, Lenin secretly arrived in Petrograd from Finland. On October 10, 1917, the historic meeting of the Central Committee of the Party took place at which it was decided to launch the armed uprising within the next few days. The historic resolution of the Central Committee of the Party, drawn up by Lenin, stated:

"The Central Committee recognizes that the international position of the Russian revolution (the revolt in the German navy which is an extreme manifestation of the growth throughout Europe of the world socialist revolution; the threat of the imperialist world with the object of strangling the revolution in Russia) as well as the military situation (the indubitable decision of the Russian bourgeoisie and Kerensky and Co. to surrender Petrograd to the Germans), and the fact that the proletarian party has gained a majority in the Soviets—all this, taken in conjunction with the peasant revolt and the swing of popular confidence towards our Party (the elections in Moscow), and, finally, the obvious preparations being made for a second Kornilov affair (the withdrawal of troops from Petrograd, the dispatch of Cossacks to Petrograd, the surrounding of Minsk by Cossacks, etc.)—all this places the armed uprising on the order of the day.

"Considering therefore that an armed uprising is inevitable, and that the time for it is fully ripe, the Central Committee instructs all Party organizations to be guided accordingly, and to discuss and decide all practical questions (the

Congress of Soviets of the Northern Region, the withdrawal of troops from Petrograd, the action of our people in Moscow and Minsk, etc.) from this point of view."

Two members of the Central Committee, Kamenev and Zinoviev, spoke and voted against this historic decision. Like the Mensheviks, they dreamed of a bourgeois parliamentary republic, and slandered the working class by asserting that it was not strong enough to carry out a socialist revolution, that it was not mature enough to take power.

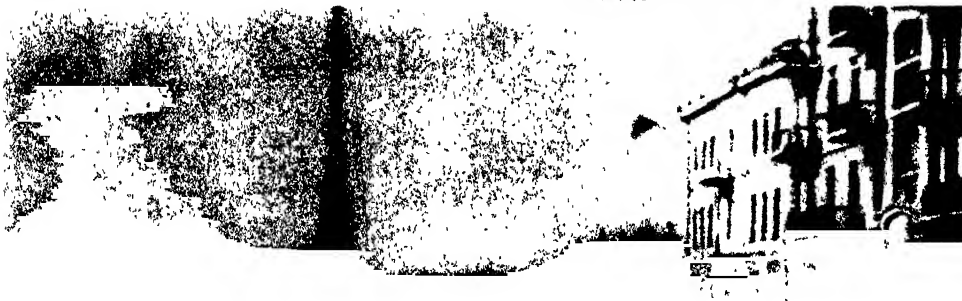
Although at this meeting Trotsky did not vote against the resolution directly, he moved an amendment which would have reduced the chances of the uprising to nought and rendered it abortive. He proposed that the uprising should not be started before the Second Congress of Soviets met, a proposal which meant delaying the uprising, divulging its date, and forewarning the Provisional Government.

The Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party sent its representatives to the Donetz Basin, the Urals, Helsingfors, Kronstadt, the Southwestern Front and other places to organize the uprising. Comrades Voroshilov, Molotov, Dzerzhinsky, Orjonikidze, Kirov, Kaganovich, Kuibyshev, Frunze, Yaroslavsky and others were specially assigned by the Party to direct the uprising in the provinces. Comrade Zhdanov carried out the work among the armed forces in Shadrinsk, in the Urals. The representatives of the Central Committee acquainted the leading members of the Bolshevik organizations in the provinces with the plan of the uprising and mobilized them for support of the uprising in Petrograd.



SERGEI LAZO

NAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR



PEOPLE'S REVOLUTIONARY ARMY
ON THE STREETS OF VLADIVOSTOK.
1922

JAPANESE INTERVENTION IN THE FAR EAST

THE JAPANESE imperialists the seizure of Russia's Far East was a long cherished dream. The vast mineral resources of this region, its coal, oil, and gold, lured the Japanese aggressors no less than its strategic position. Possession of the Russian Far East would have enabled Japan to take firm foot on the Asiatic continent and set up a spring-board for penetration into the interior of Russia.

Japan commenced her aggression against Russia in 1904 by a perfidious attack without declaration of war. Unable to offer vigorous resistance, the tsarist government suffered defeat. Japan stripped Russia of Southern Sakhalin and established her rule over the Kuril Islands.

In 1918, after the Soviet system had been set up in Russia, Japan launched another attack upon our country, landing troops at Vladivostok during the night of April 4. Relying upon these land forces and a squadron of warships riding in the roads, Japan formed a counter-revolutionary government in that city and supplied the White troops under the Cossack atamans Semyonov and Kalmykov with arms and ammunition. It may be mentioned in passing that Semyonov has been recently captured, tried and executed by the Soviet authorities.

On August 26, 1918, the Japanese took Chita and on the 4th of the following month, Khabarovsk. Somewhat later their divisions advanced as far as the Transbaikalian region.

The invaders now began to plunder the whole Far Eastern territory and to exploit its natural wealth in the most ruthless fashion. Via Vladivostok they shipped huge quantities of oil, coal, timber and fish out of the occupied area. In the autumn of 1918 a consortium of Japanese banks organized a commercial and industrial concern to operate in the Far East. Speculation was rife. In December Japanese firms acquired title to a number of Russian steamboats for a song, bought up claims to iron deposits in Olga region, to gold fields in Suchan region. The aggressor was hurrying to cash in the fruits of his perfidy.

The Japanese treated the local population with the greatest cruelty. All those suspected of sympathy with the Soviet power and the Bolsheviks were put to death. They were particularly merciless with those who had worked in the Soviet government institutions.

Harassed by punitive expeditions, masses of workers and peasants of the Far East took to the forests and formed partisan detachments. These played an important part in the subsequent liberation of their native towns and villages. Operating in the Japanese occupied areas, they wrecked railways, burnt bridges and captured military supply trains.

Many thousands of partisans fought with great courage and fortitude, ready to give their lives for their country. One of the most famous of their leaders, the terror of the Whiteguards and the invaders, was the Bolshevik Sergei Lazo. The detachments under his leadership scotched the supply of coal to the port of Vladivostok and the railways. This threw the whole transport system out of gear, delaying troop move-

ments and preventing the timely receipt by the Japanese of arms and ammunition.

At the end of 1919 Lazo secretly made his way to Vladivostok and with the aid of the Bolsheviks there began to prepare the population for an uprising. On January 31, 1920, the partisans entered the city and, reinforced by the local working population, freed it. Lazo now became the head of the Military Council. In February the partisans cleared Blagoveshchensk and Khabarovsk of the invaders.

On April 4, 1920, Japanese forces made a sudden attack on the partisans of Vladivostok and other towns, disarmed some of the detachments and arrested many of the commanders, Lazo among them. He was burnt alive, together with other members of the Military Council, in the firebox of a locomotive.

But the Japanese did not succeed in destroying the partisan movement. Soviet regulars came to its aid, and, by October 1922, the invaders were driven beyond the confines of the Soviet Far East.

For four years the Soviet Far East had been the prey of Japan; for four years Japan had looted the Soviet population. The long duration of the occupation is explained by the fact that the young Soviet Army was compelled at that time to wage a desperate struggle in the West against the forces of a combined foreign intervention and an internal counter-revolution, both bent on destroying the young Soviet Socialist Republic.

In 1938 Japan once more perpetrated an attack against the Soviet Union, this time in the Lake Hasan region, a short distance from Vladivostok. The next year the attack was repeated on the territory of the Mongolian People's Republic, near the Khalkhin-gol River, the aim being once again to invade the Soviet land and cut off the Far East from Russia. But by then the Soviet Union already possessed a powerful army, excellently equipped. The Japanese attack was quickly repulsed, and all units which had invaded the Mongolian People's Republic were completely wiped out.

During World War II Japan concentrated great forces in Manchuria in preparation of a fresh attack against the U.S.S.R. While waiting for a propitious moment to strike, the Japanese imperialists repeatedly violated the Soviet Manchurian border in order to contain the Soviet forces in the Far East.

Japan capitulated in consequence of her utter defeat by the armed forces of the United Nations, and the people of the Soviet Union declare in the words of their leader, Joseph Stalin:

"Our Soviet people spared neither strength nor labour for the sake of victory. We experienced extremely hard years. But now every one of us can say: We have won. Henceforth we can regard our country as being free from the menace of German invasion in the West and of Japanese invasion in the East. The long awaited peace for the peoples of all the world has come."



SALAR JUNG DANADUR.

***The Arms
of the Uzbek Soviet Socialist
Republic***

UZBEK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE UZBEK SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC, located in the middle of Central Asia, extends over a territory of 407,500 square kilometres and has a population of 6,300,000 (census 1939). The Uzbeks are the most numerous nation of Central Asia. The Uzbeks are experts in irrigated farming and excellent cotton growers. Besides Uzbeks, who constitute the majority of the population, the republic is inhabited by Russians, Tajiks, and Kara-Kalpakians. The latter have formed within the Uzbek S.S.R. an Autonomous Kara-Kalpakian Republic, located in the lower reaches of the Amu Darya. Since 1924 Uzbekistan has been a constituent republic of the U.S.S.R. Tashkent, the capital, is a large industrial and cultural centre with a population of 585,000.

The Great October Socialist Revolution liberated the Uzbek people from national and class oppression and started them on the road towards economic and cultural development. Their backwardness in these spheres was rapidly overcome with the fraternal aid of the Russian people. Under the Stalin Five-Year Plans, Uzbekistan experienced a period of stormy industrial growth.

Textile, food and other light industries underwent extensive development. A coal, oil and chemical industry sprang up. A powerful iron and steel works and large engineering plants, producing agricultural machinery, medium and small hydro-turbines, have been built. New branches of industry—aircraft, machine tool and electrical—were built up during the Patriotic War.

The total industrial production of Uzbekistan was valued at 2,480,000,000 rubles in 1945, as against the 270,000,000 rubles of 1913, i.e., it had increased almost ninefold. By 1944, the output of the heavy industry constituted 52 per cent of the total industrial output of the republic.

Since the establishment of Soviet power the following hydro-electric power stations: Kadyrvin, Kuvasai, Chirchik and Farhad have been either fully or partly constructed in Uzbekistan. More than 800 kilometres of railway tracks and many highways have been built and airlines set up.

Socialist agriculture in the Uzbek S.S.R. has made great progress. More than 850,000 hectares of land have been irrigated since the inception of Soviet rule.

The total length of the irrigation canals built in this period is 1,080 kilometres. The Stalin Great Ferghana Canal, the Molotov Tashkent Canal, the North-Ferghana, South-Ferghana and Tashsakin Canals are among them.

As early as 1937, there were 21,500 tractors and 1,400 combines in operation in the fields of the collective and state farms of the republic. By 1941 the cotton harvest in Uzbekistan had more than trebled that of 1913, and amounted to 17,100,000 tons. The Uzbek S.S.R. is the principal cotton-growing republic of the U.S.S.R., producing 60 per cent of the country's total.

The Uzbek people has made great progress in the field of culture and science. The republic has 4,500 schools with an attendance of more than a million children, as against the 160 schools of 1913; there are 36 schools of higher learning and 67 technical schools with an enrolment of 35,000. Medical aid to the population is rendered by 4,000 physicians, as against the 128 practising in 1914. A national Soviet

intelligentsia has grown up in Uzbekistan which made it possible to found an Uzbek Academy of Sciences in 1943. National art has highly developed; 60 theatres, including the Uzbek Academic Theatre of Opera and Ballet and the State Drama Theatre, have been founded. The publishing houses of the republic put out 80,000,000 books during the period of 1937-46.

Uzbek women, who have won equal rights, now occupy a worthy place in the ranks of the Stakhanovites of industry and have gained prominence in agriculture, public education, public health and art.

Hundreds of thousands of Uzbeks fought in the ranks of the Soviet Army during the Patriotic War. For their exemplary conduct on the field of battle, 66 Uzbek men and officers were awarded the high title of Hero of the Soviet Union and more than 70,000 were decorated with Orders and Medals of the Soviet Union. The workers, peasants and intelligentsia of Uzbekistan have made a fine contribution to the Soviet people's great effort on the labour front by supplying industry and the fighting forces with large quantities of wool, cotton, grain, meat, strategic raw materials and munitions.

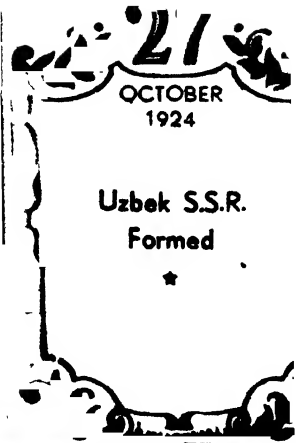
The new Stalin Five-Year Plan ensures the further rapid development of the national economy and culture of the Uzbek S.S.R.

The sum to be invested in the national economy of the republic during the period of 1946-50 amounts to 3,900,000,000 rubles. New factories, plants and mines will be built and existing enterprises expanded. Electric power plants with a total capacity of 303,000 kilowatts will be built and put in operation.

In 1950, the industry of the Uzbek S.S.R. is expected to produce 86,000 tons of steel, 1,130,000 tons of coal, 1,066,000 tons of oil, 300,000 tons of superphosphates and 270,000 tons of cement. Production of consumer goods will be considerably increased; 161,000,000 metres of cotton fabrics and 14,000,000 metres of silk fabrics, 173,000 tons of vegetable oil, etc., will be manufactured.

The new Five-Year Plan provides for the further development of agriculture of the Uzbek S.S.R. and, primarily, its most important branch—cotton growing. Plans are even made going beyond the five-year period. By special decision of the government of the U.S.S.R., the harvest of cotton in Uzbekistan is scheduled to reach 2,400,000 tons in 1953. The area of cotton plantations is planned to be increased to 1,000,000 hectares by 1953, as against the 815,000 hectares of 1946, while the average yield per hectare is to reach 2.5 tons, as against the 1.64 tons of 1938. To ensure the fulfilment of this program the irrigated areas will be considerably extended. In a letter to J. V. Stalin, the collective farmers of the Uzbek S.S.R. have pledged themselves to fulfil this grand program not in 1953, but as early as 1950—the last year under the Five-Year Plan.

Soviet patriotism inspires the Uzbek people to new labour exploits. This was strikingly expressed by Kayum Rakhmanov, an Uzbek soldier, who took part in the defence of Leningrad. "Without Soviet Russia there can be no free Uzbekistan. Lenin and Stalin opened our eyes and showed us the way to happiness. I shall not spare my life to defend what we Uzbeks have got from Soviet power."




DAM OF THE FARHAD HYDROELECTRIC POWER STATION ON THE SYR DARYA,
ONE OF THE GREATEST PIECES OF ENGINEERING IN THE UZBEK S.S.R. 1946



The Great Uzbek
Highway at a mountain
pass

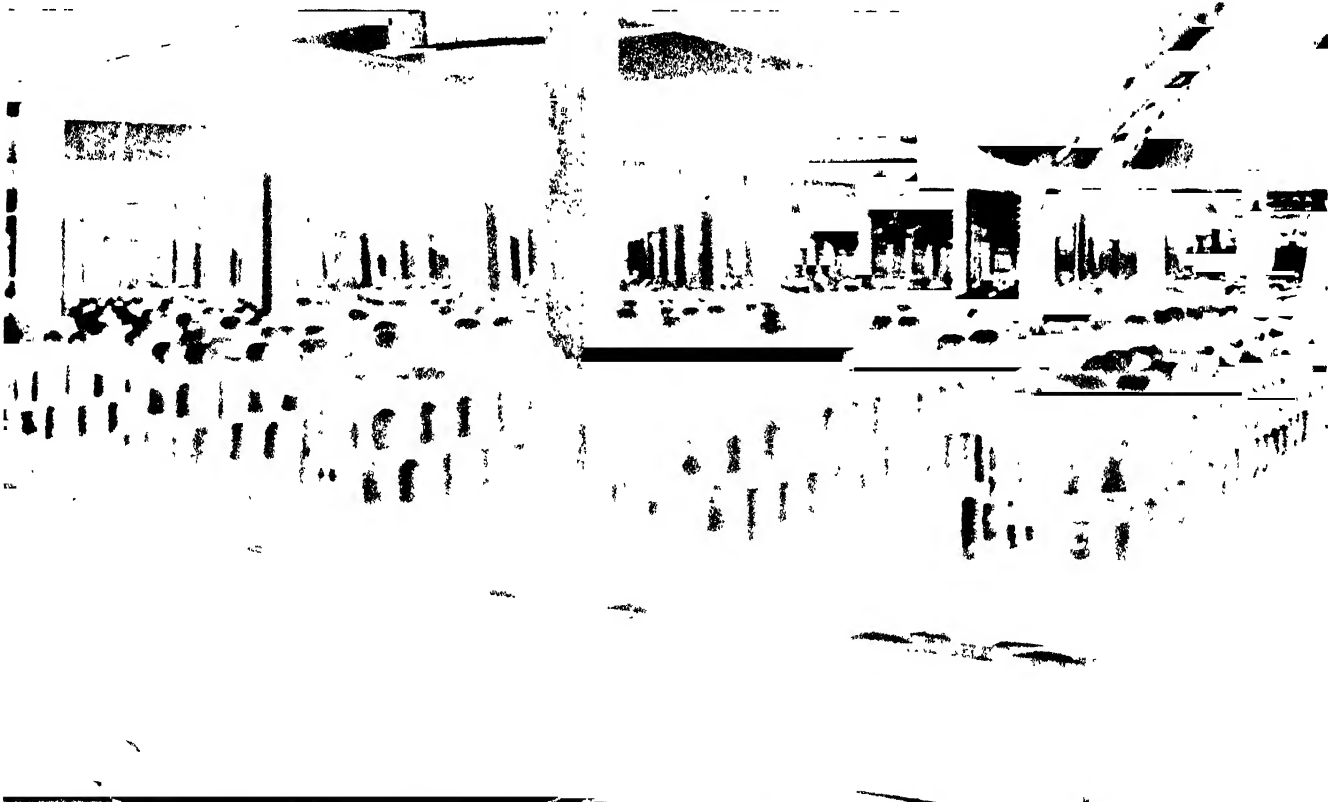
Rolling metal at the
Uzbek Steel Mill. 1946





The Stalin Collective Farm of Ferghana delivering cotton, 1946

A daughter of Uzbekistan



SPOOLING ROOM IN THE STALIN TEXTILE MILL. TASHKENT. 1946



NIZAMUD-AIN ALI SHER, known as Nevayi, which means "Sweet Singer," was born in Herat, capital of a Central Asian state, in 1441.

The future founder of Uzbek literature, poet of genius, philosopher and scholar grew up in the company of the future sovereign, Sultan Hussein, who was himself a poet of note. When Hussein ascended the throne he made Nevayi his First Vizier.

Nevayi strove to spread education among the people, to enforce strict observance of the laws, and to reduce taxes. He was an enlightened and humane statesman.

Ali Sher Nevayi did much to further the development of the national literature, painting and architecture. He gave every encouragement to musicians and historians. In fact, he himself was proficient in nearly all these arts.

Of Nevayi's numerous works, the most renowned are the *Char Divan*—four books of lyrical poetry totalling 47,000 verses—and the *Hamsa*—five long poems: *For the Admiration of the Wise*, *Farhad and Shirin*, *Leyly and Medjnun*, *Seven Planets* and *The Rampart of Iskander*. He also wrote a *History of Kings*, and *The Scales*, a book setting forth the rules of versification and lyric poetry, and *The ABC of Riddles*, an original guide for poets on how to write verses containing a hidden meaning. In his *Litigation between Two Languages* Nevayi bravely attacked the established tradition of writing in Persian, a language the people did not understand. The poet, who was thoroughly versed in Persian culture and himself wrote many lyrical poems in Persian, proved the right to existence of his native Uzbek tongue, which he knew to perfection. That was Nevayi's great historic service.

Nevayi said: "Whatever the form, thought is the core of poetry." He also said: "If you are a man, don't call him a man who is not concerned with the well-being of the people." These words could serve as an epigraph to all his works, in which he glorified creative effort and love of mankind, and sought to prove that neither national differences nor distance can prevent peoples from living in harmony if they wished to.

Nevayi was one of the early and most brilliant representatives of the Renaissance epoch in the countries of the Islamic Orient. His deathless works are pervaded with the spirit of humanism.

The songs which Nevayi created are sung in the villages of Uzbekistan to this day. The Uzbek playwright Hurshid has written a libretto based on Nevayi's *Farhad and Shirin* for a musical play by the composers Victor Uspensky and Georgi Mushel. Reinhold Gliere's opera *Leyly and Medjnun* is based on Nevayi's poem of the same name. The story told in this poem is also the subject of a four-act drama by the Azerbaijani poet and playwright Samed Vurgun. Pyotr Skosyrev, a Russian writer, has produced a novel, *Farhad*, based on Nevayi's *Farhad and Shirin*. A novel dealing with the life of Nevayi has been written by Aybek, an Uzbek author.

Ali Sher Nevayi died in Herat in 1501. He is buried in a tomb which he himself designed.

Portrait by Mahmud Muzakhiba
(Herat, 15th century)

ALI SHER NEVAYI

.

.

.



***The Arms
of the Turkmen Soviet Socialist
Republic***

TURKMEN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE TURKMEN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC in Central Asia is bounded by the Caspian Sea in the west and the Amu Darya in the east. It includes the vast Kara Kum desert and a chain of oases that stretch to the south up to the foothills of the Kopet-Dag Mountains. In the south the republic borders on Iran and Afghanistan. It has a territory of 485,000 square kilometres and a population of 1,300,000.

Turkmenians form the majority of the population of the republic, the rest is made up of Russians, Kazakhs and Uzbeks. Prior to the revolution, Turkmenia was a backward agrarian country and a colony of tsarist Russia. The mineral wealth of the country was neither explored nor exploited. Turkmenia had practically no industry save for a limited number of handicraft shops. There were only 2,500 industrial and office workers throughout the country, less than half of them Turkmenians. Agriculture was extremely backward. Most of the population were nomads and were engaged in stockbreeding. More than 90 per cent of the land, all the water and most of the livestock belonged to the khans, *bey*s and Russian landlord-colonizers. The working people lived in poverty. The cultural level of the people was extremely low. Only seven out of every 1,000 men were literate. The oppressed Turkmenian women were all illiterate.

The Great October Socialist Revolution freed the Turkmenian people from national and social oppression and gave them state independence; the Turkmen S.S.R. was formed in 1924 and joined the U.S.S.R. as an equal Union Republic.

The national policy of Lenin and Stalin, socialist industrialization and the collectivization of agriculture, converted Turkmenia from a backward agrarian country into a flourishing Soviet Republic with a highly developed economy and culture. A powerful industry, equipped with modern machinery, was built up in the republic during the period of the Stalin Five-Year Plans, including oil wells and oil refining enterprises, and the mining of sulphur, sulphates, coal, lead and other important minerals. The chemical, glass, textile, food and other branches of the industry were widely developed. Industry employs hundreds of Turkmen engineers and technicians and tens of thousands of workers, and provides 70 per cent of the republic's total production. Women comprise 30 per cent of the working people and among them there are engineers, technicians, foremen and heads of enterprises. Many women occupy high government posts.

Agriculture underwent a fundamental change in Turkmenia. Soviet power helped the Turkmen nomads to become settlers and create a far-reaching mechanized socialist system of farming. More than 100,000 small peasant holdings combined into collective farms, which have at their disposal some 4,000 tractors, combines and other agricultural machines.

Extensive work was carried out in improving old and constructing new irrigation systems.

The area under grain was almost doubled as compared with 1913, while the agricultural output increased threefold. The average harvest of cotton, which is the chief crop in the republic, was raised from 0.71 to 1.64 tons per hectare. The general cash income of the collective farmers increased eightfold between 1932 and 1938.

The rapid growth of the national economy of the Turkmen S.S.R. was accompanied by the steady cultural progress of the Turkmen people. Universal secondary schooling was introduced and now there are about 1,000 schools with 177,000 pupils attending. The colleges that have been opened include pedagogical, medical, agricultural and teachers' institutes. Six thousand students are attending the 29 institutions of higher and specialized technical education. A branch of the Academy of Sciences of the U.S.S.R. was established in Turkmenia in 1940 and it co-ordinates the work of 40 scientific

research institutions, including the institute of history, language and literature. This institute published a number of important works on the history of Turkmenia, and was the first to compile a grammar of the Turkmen language; it also prepared textbooks for primary and secondary schools.

Instead of the three newspapers that were published in the Russian language before the revolution, Turkmenia now has 65 newspapers, 57 in the Turkmen language, with a total circulation of 200,000. Hundreds of titles in 16,500,000 copies were published in the Turkmen language during the decade 1937-46.

Turkmenia did not have a single theatre before the revolution; now there are 14 theatres in the republic including the Stalin State Theatre of Drama, the State Theatre of Opera and Ballet, and a Theatre for Young Spectators. Music schools, philharmonic and opera studios have been established.

Many talented masters of Turkmen art and literature came to the fore in the Soviet period.

There was practically no medical aid prior to the revolution and there were only nine doctors in the whole country. Hospitals, first-aid stations, out-patient clinics and clinics were established in all the regions and in many villages under Soviet power; in 1941 the republic had 257 medical institutions staffed by 5,850 qualified medical workers.

The high title of Hero of the Soviet Union was conferred upon 51 of Turkmenia's sons who fought in the ranks of the Soviet Army in the Great Patriotic War. More than 15,000 Turkmen were decorated with Orders and Medals of the Soviet Union.

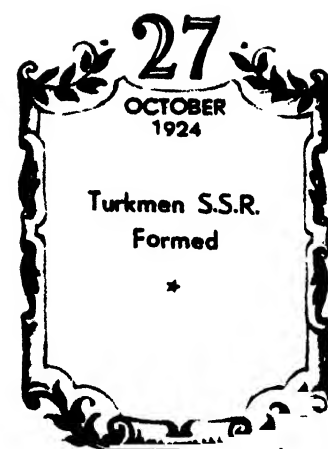
The new Five-Year Plan, 1946-50, for the restoration and development of the national economy, opens up wide prospects for further rapid growth for Turkmenia. As much as 1,600,000,000 rubles will be invested in the republic's economy during this period. By 1950, the output of oil will be increased to 1,104,000 tons, the output of coal will reach 60,000 tons, the production of phosphates 50,000 tons, and mining of sulphur will be increased tenfold.

Great progress will be made in the industrial utilization of the huge deposits of sulphate, bromine and other valuable raw chemicals that are found in the Kara-Bugaz Gulf. The light and food industries will also be extensively developed; the enterprises scheduled to be built include a big cloth mill with 4,000 spindles, a vegetable canning factory with an annual production of 2,200,000 tins of vegetables; the yearly output of canned meat will be increased to 4,000,000 tins, and the shoe industry will produce 1,500,000 pairs of shoes annually. In all, the output of the republic's industry will exceed the 1940 level by 76 per cent.

Agriculture will be greatly stimulated. By the end of the Five-Year Plan period 145,000 hectares of new land will be added to the area under cotton. The number of livestock will be considerably increased. The 600-kilometre Great Kara Kum Canal now under construction will stimulate the further development of agriculture and livestock breeding, as it will provide the republic with 225,000 hectares of additional fertile land.

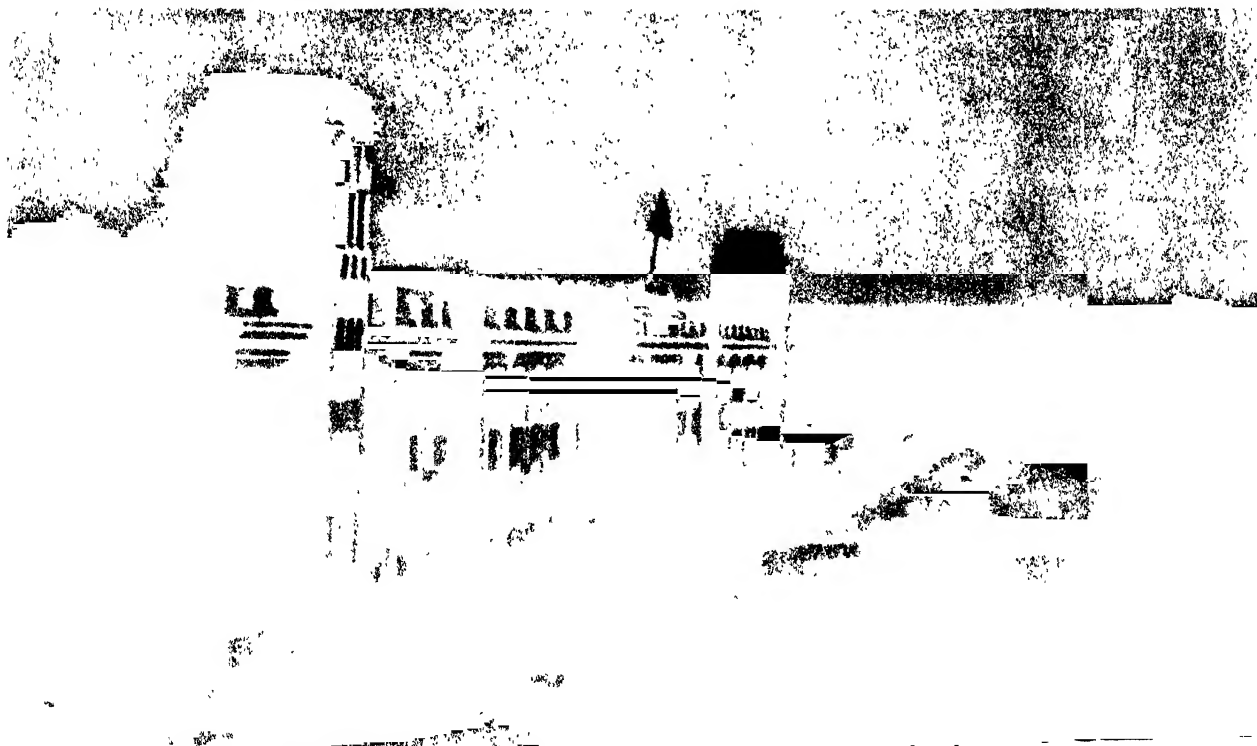
Houses with 310,000 square metres of floorspace will be built in Turkmenia's towns. In Ashkhabad, the capital, trolley buses will make their appearance and the water-supply system will be extended. More hospitals and out-patient clinics will be built in the republic. There will be 1,102 schools with 203,000 pupils attending by 1950. The student roll in the institutions of higher and specialized technical learning will reach 13,000.

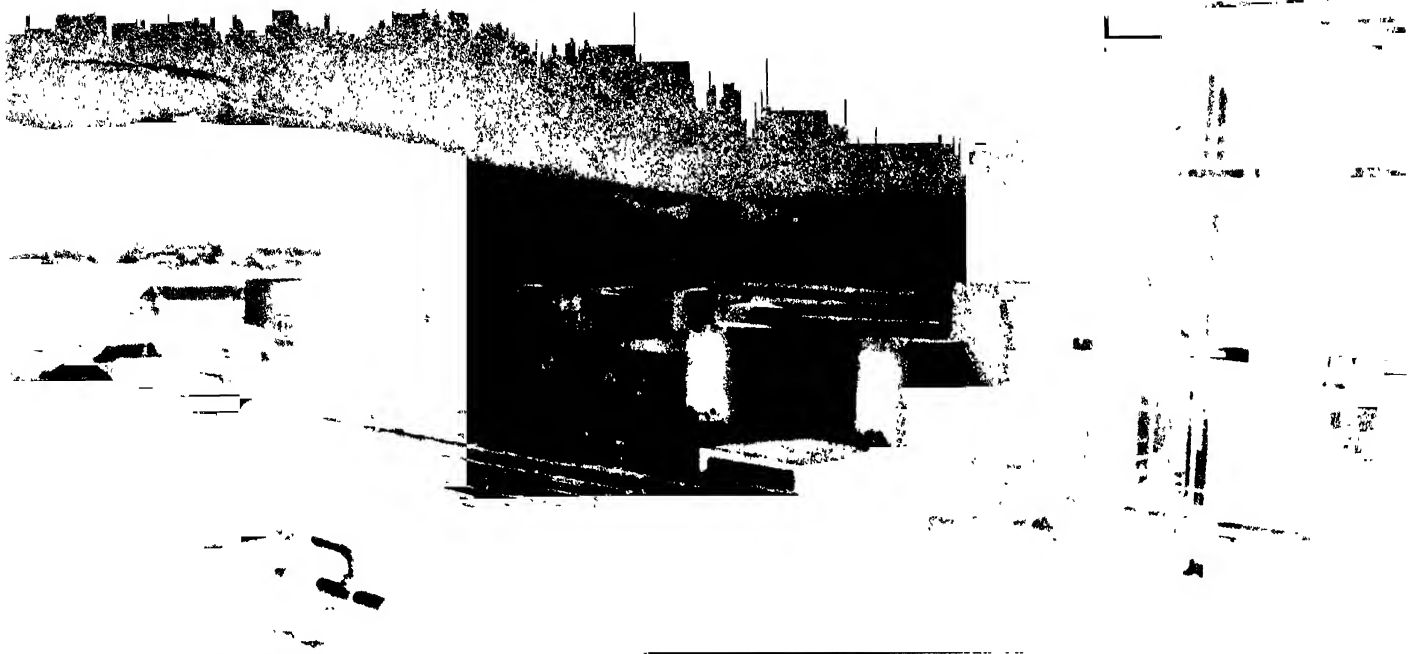
The new Stalin Five-Year Plan assures the further growth of the material and cultural level of the Turkmen people.



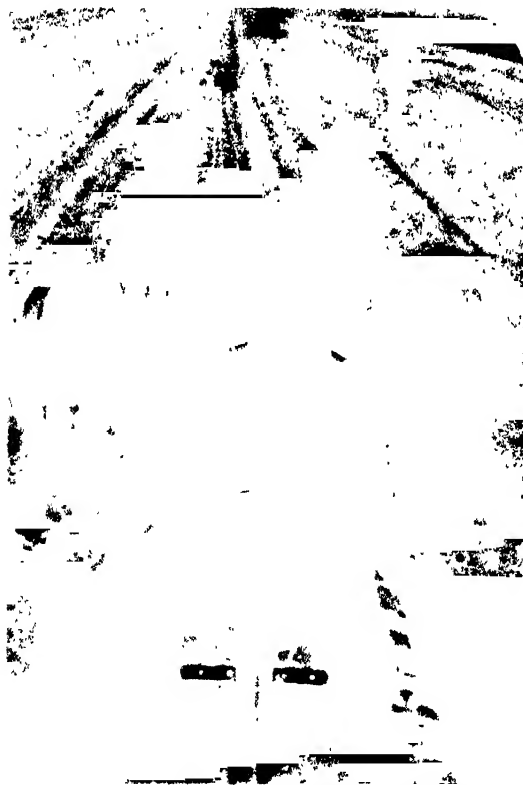
Government House in Ashkhabad,
capital of the Turkmen S.S.R.

ONE OF THE MAIN STREETS OF ASHKHABAD





The Krasnovodsk Oil Refinery



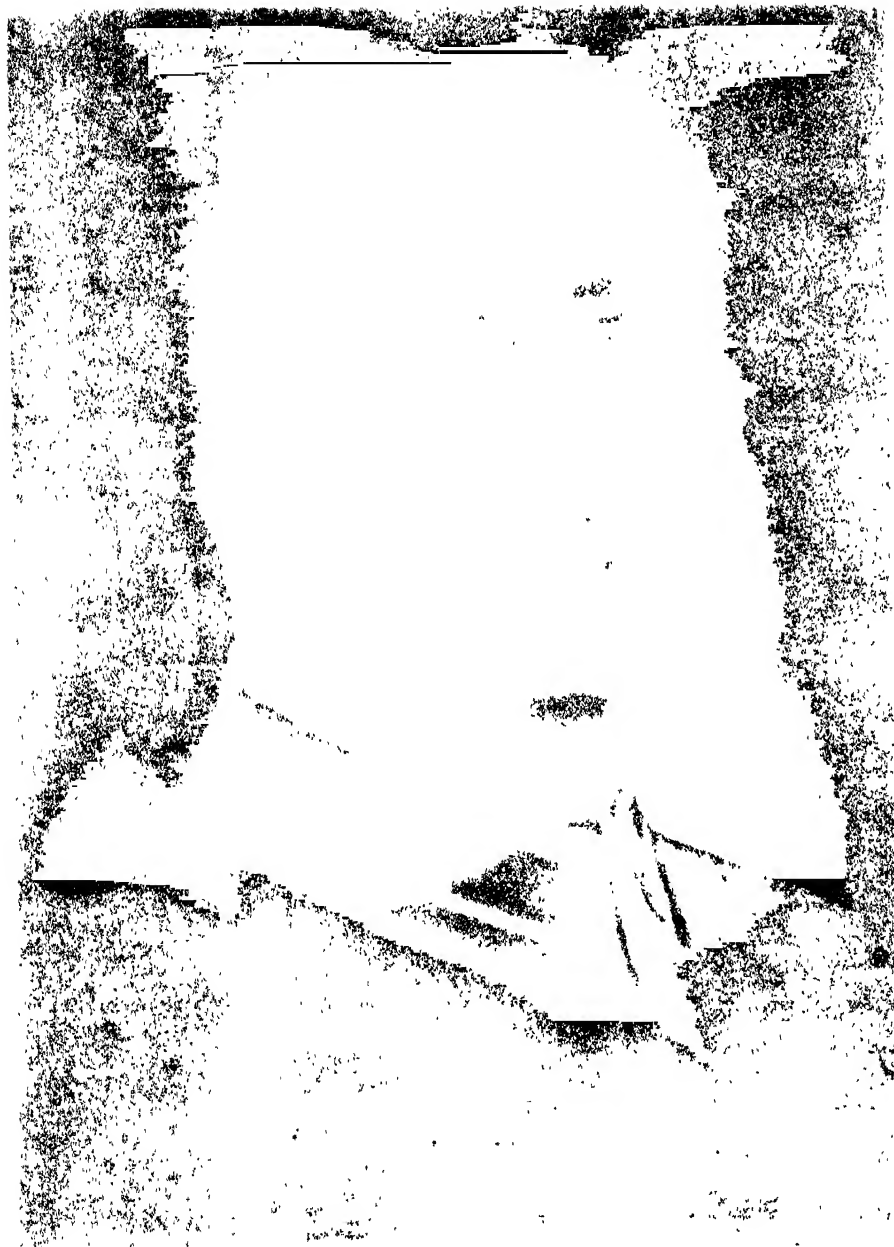
Mechanized sowing of cotton. Bolshevik Collective Farm, Mareysk region



At a school for adults at the carpet-weaving shops in Ashkhabad



Registering the lambs at the Caracul State Farm, Karakumy, Balram, Alisky district, 1946



MIKHAIL FRUNZE

**"...IN THE PERSON OF COMRADE FRUNZE WE HAVE LOST
ONE OF THE FINEST, MOST UPRIGHT AND MOST FEARLESS
REVOLUTIONARIES OF OUR TIME."**

J. STALIN

MIKHAIL FRUNZE

(1885-1925)

MIKHAIL VASSILIEVICH FRUNZE was a great Soviet military leader, an outstanding builder of the Soviet state and of its armed forces.

Born on February 2, 1885, in the town of Pishpek (now Frunze, the capital of the Kirghiz Soviet Socialist Republic) he spent his childhood and youth in Verny, now Alma-Ata, where his father, an assistant army surgeon, had taken up residence. He graduated from the *gymnasium* with high honours, winning the gold medal, and went off to St. Petersburg where he entered the Polytechnical Institute. In St. Petersburg Frunze joined the Bolsheviks, became active in the revolutionary circles, and soon was arrested for taking part in a demonstration and resisting the police. Ordered out of the capital as an "unreliable," he went underground and led the life of a professional revolutionary.

The Bolshevik Party sent him to do underground work in the Ivanovo-Voznesensk industrial district, and before long Frunze won great popularity among the textile workers of Shuya. For his Party work he made use of the nicknames "Trifonich" and "Arseni." He was one of the organizers of the famous Ivanovo-Voznesensk textile strikes on the eve of the 1905 Revolution. The police tracked him down and, mauled within an inch of his life, he was flung into gaol and then exiled to Kazan. But no sooner had he reported to the police chief there and signed the undertaking not to leave the town, than he was back again in Shuya.

In 1906 the Ivanovo-Voznesensk Bolsheviks sent Frunze as their delegate to the Fourth Congress of the Russian Social-Democratic Labour Party in Stockholm. There he heard Lenin speak, and met Stalin for the first time.

In the spring of 1907 the tsarist police got on his track again and arrested him. He was sentenced to death, and he made the acquaintance of the condemned cell before the sentence was commuted to penal servitude. Then followed long years in prison and all the miseries of hard labour and exile.

In 1916 Frunze managed to escape; and the months preceding the revolution he spent at the front, sent by the Party to work among the tsarist troops. Then came the February Revolution, and he returned to Ivanovo-Voznesensk.

But he did not remain there long. Advised of the preparations for the October insurrection, Frunze formed a detachment, 2,000 strong, of local garrison troops and workers' combat squads, and went with it to Moscow. At the head of this detachment, he was in the thick of the fighting against the Moscow counter-revolutionaries. Succeeding months saw him back in Ivanovo-Voznesensk, getting the economic wheels to turn and putting down the counter-revolutionary revolt of the Socialist-Revolutionaries in Yaroslavl.

Frunze's revolutionary energy was inexhaustible, astounding. The writer Dmitri Furmanov, who met him often in those days, wrote of him in his diary: "There is no vegetating with Frunze, he will stir up the whole inside of you, will mobilize every grain of your mind and energy and will power, will bring you leaping to your feet and make your heart throb and your mind thrill like his own."

Towards the close of 1918, the Party put Frunze in command of the Fourth Army on the Eastern Front. In a very short time he raised fighting efficiency, formed new units, and created the famous Chapayev Division. In the steppes beyond the Volga, in the mountains of the Southern Urals, in the open spaces of Kazakhstan, Frunze scored victory after victory.

It was in this period that his talent as a commander and strategist unfolded to the full. He knew how to win the hearts of men and mobilize their will power. Chapayev, after his very first meeting and talk with Frunze, exclaimed: "There's a man for you, there's a commander!" Four armies of the Eastern Front, Southern group, were soon under Frunze's command, and he succeeded in turning the tide. The plan for a drive against Moscow by the Whiteguard armies of Kolchak came to naught.

In the fighting at Ufa, Frunze displayed the magnificent personal qualities of a military leader sprung from the people. At the critical moment in the engagement, he took up a rifle himself and led the attack of his favourite Ivanovo-Voznesensk Regiment. During the crossing of the Belaya River, a shell-splinter killed the horse under him and he himself suffered severe shell-shock; yet he remained on the scene of action, his own example an inspiration to his troops.

The Southern armies of the Eastern Front now freed the whole of the Urals. Kolchak's armies fled to Siberia and Turkestan. Frunze became commander of the Turkestan Front, and, after some heavy campaigns, he utterly defeated the army of the Emir of Bokhara. Over Bokhara the red flag was set flying.

Then Frunze was summoned to Moscow to see Lenin. The country was fighting Baron Wrangel, and things were serious. "If the war drags on another year, it will mean that the revolution is lost, inevitably," Lenin told Frunze.

"By December, Vladimir Ilyich, the Crimea will be Soviet," Frunze replied.

The Crimean campaign was the crowning achievement of Frunze's generalship. The fighting at Kakhovka, the crossing of the Sivash and the capture of Perekop are epic pages in the history of the Civil War, and their glory will never fade from the Soviet Army's battle standards. On November 16, 1920, Frunze reported to Lenin from Djankoi in the Crimea: "Today our cavalry took Kerch. The Southern Front has ceased to exist."

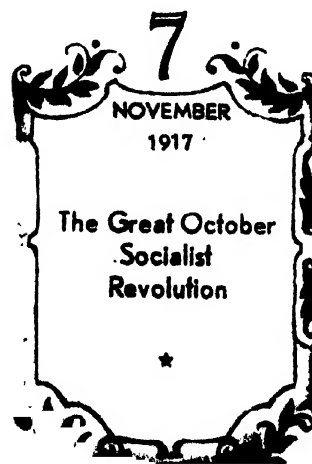
In the years of peace that followed, Frunze contributed greatly to the building up and the organization of the Soviet armed forces. In January 1925 he was appointed People's Commissar for Military and Naval Affairs and Chairman of the Revolutionary Military Council of the U.S.S.R. But sickness undermined his strength, and on October 31, 1925, he died. The whole country mourned the loss of this great military leader. The people's sorrow was expressed in the terse words of Stalin, the teacher and friend of Frunze. "In the person of Comrade Frunze," he said, "we have lost one of the finest, most upright and most fearless revolutionaries of our time."

NOVEMBER

- NOVEMBER 6, 1917** *V. I. Lenin arrived at the Smolny (in Petrograd) and personally took over the leadership of the uprising.*
- NOVEMBER 6, 1943** *Soviet Army liberated Kiev, capital of Ukrainian S.S.R., from German invaders.*
- NOVEMBER 7, 1917** *The Great October Socialist Revolution.*
- NOVEMBER 8, 1917** *The Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets decreed the transfer of all power to the Soviets. The Congress passed the Decree on Peace and the Decree on Land and formed the first Soviet government—the Council of People's Commissars—headed by V. I. Lenin.*
- NOVEMBER 11, 1946** *Nikolai Burdenko, outstanding Soviet scientist, Hero of Socialist Labour, died.*
- NOVEMBER 14, 1935** *The First All-Union Conference of Stakhanovites of Industry and Transport opened in Moscow.*
- NOVEMBER 15, 1905** *Ivan Sechenov, great Russian physiologist, died.*
- NOVEMBER 16, 1917** *The Declaration of Rights of the Nations of Russia, signed by Lenin and Stalin, published.*
- NOVEMBER 17, 1935** *Speech by J. V. Stalin at the First All-Union Conference of Stakhanovites.*
- NOVEMBER 19** *Artillery Day.*
- NOVEMBER 20, 1910** *Leo Tolstoy, great Russian writer, died.*
- NOVEMBER 28, 1820** *Birth of Frederick Engels.*
- NOVEMBER 29, 1861** *Nikolai Dobrolyubov, Revolutionary-Democrat, great Russian critic and philosopher, died.*
- NOVEMBER 29, 1920** *Soviet government set up in Armenia.*



STORMING OF THE WINTER PALACE. PETROGRAD, 1917



NAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR.

OCTOBER UPRISING IN PETROGRAD

ON THE INSTRUCTIONS OF THE CENTRAL COMMITTEE of the Bolshevik Party, a *Revolutionary Military Committee* of the Petrograd Soviet was set up. This body became the legally functioning headquarters of the uprising.

Meanwhile the counter-revolutionaries, too, were hastily mustering their forces. The officers of the army formed a counter-revolutionary organization known as the Officers' League. Everywhere the counter-revolutionaries set up headquarters for the formation of shock battalions. By the end of October the counter-revolutionaries had 43 shock battalions at their command. Special battalions of Companions of the Cross of St. George were formed.

Kerensky's government considered the question of transferring the seat of government from Petrograd to Moscow. This made it clear that it was preparing to surrender Petrograd to the Germans in order to forestall the uprising in the city. The protest of the Petrograd workers and soldiers compelled the Provisional Government to remain in Petrograd.

On October 16 an enlarged meeting of the Central Committee of the Party was held. This meeting elected a *Party Centre*, headed by Comrade Stalin, to direct the uprising. This Party Centre was the leading core of the Revolutionary Military Committee of the Petrograd Soviet and had practical direction of the whole uprising.

At the meeting of the Central Committee the capitulators Zinoviev and Kamenev again opposed the uprising. Meeting with a rebuff, they came out openly in the press against the uprising, against the Party. On October 18 the Menshevik newspaper, *Novaya Zhizn*, printed a statement by Kamenev and Zinoviev declaring that the Bolsheviks were making preparations for an uprising, and that they (Kamenev and Zinoviev) considered it an adventurous gamble. Kamenev and Zinoviev thus disclosed to the enemy the decision of the Central Committee regarding the uprising, they revealed that an uprising had been planned to take place within a few days. This was treachery. Lenin wrote in this connection: "Kamenev and Zinoviev have *betrayed* the decision of the Central Committee of their Party on the armed uprising to Rodzyanko and Kerensky." Lenin put before the Central Committee the question of Zinoviev's and Kamenev's expulsion from the Party.

Forewarned by the traitors, the enemies of the revolution at once began to take measures to prevent the uprising and to destroy the directing staff of the revolution—the Bolshevik Party. The Provisional Government called a secret meeting which decided upon measures for combating the Bolsheviks. On October 19 the Provisional Government hastily summoned troops from the front to Petrograd. The streets were heavily patrolled. The counter-revolutionaries succeeded in massing especially large forces in Moscow. The Provisional Government drew up a plan: on the eve of the Second Congress of Soviets, the Smolny—the headquarters of the Bolshevik Central Committee—was to be attacked and occupied and the Bolshevik directing centre destroyed. For this purpose the government summoned to Petrograd troops in whose loyalty it believed.

But the days and even the hours of the Provisional Government were already numbered. Nothing could now halt the victorious march of the Socialist Revolution.

On October 21 the Bolsheviks sent commissars of the Revolutionary Military Committee to all revolutionary army

units. Throughout the remaining days before the uprising energetic preparations for action were made in the army units and in the mills and factories. Precise instructions were also issued to the warships *Aurora* and *Zarya Svobody*.

At a meeting of the Petrograd Soviet, Trotsky in a fit of boasting blabbed to the enemy the date on which the Bolsheviks had planned to begin the armed uprising. In order not to allow Kerensky's government to frustrate the uprising, the Central Committee of the Party decided to start and carry it through before the appointed time, and set its date for the day before the opening of the Second Congress of Soviets.

Kerensky began his attack on the early morning of October 24 (November 6) by ordering the suppression of the central organ of the Bolshevik Party, *Rabochy Put* (*Workers' Path*), and the dispatch of armoured cars to its editorial premises and to the printing plant of the Bolsheviks. By 10 a.m., however, on the instructions of Comrade Stalin, Red Guards and revolutionary soldiers pressed back the armoured cars and placed a reinforced guard over the printing plant and the *Rabochy Put* editorial offices. Towards 11 a.m. *Rabochy Put* came out with a call for the overthrow of the Provisional Government. Simultaneously, on the instructions of the Party Centre of the uprising, detachments of revolutionary soldiers and Red Guards were rushed to the Smolny.

The uprising had begun.

On the night of October 24 Lenin arrived at the Smolny and assumed personal direction of the uprising. All that night revolutionary units of the army and detachments of the Red Guard kept arriving at the Smolny. The Bolsheviks directed them to the centre of the capital, to surround the Winter Palace, where the Provisional Government had entrenched itself.

On October 25 (November 7), Red Guards and revolutionary troops occupied the railway stations, post office, telegraph office, the Ministries and the State Bank.

The Pre-parliament was dissolved.

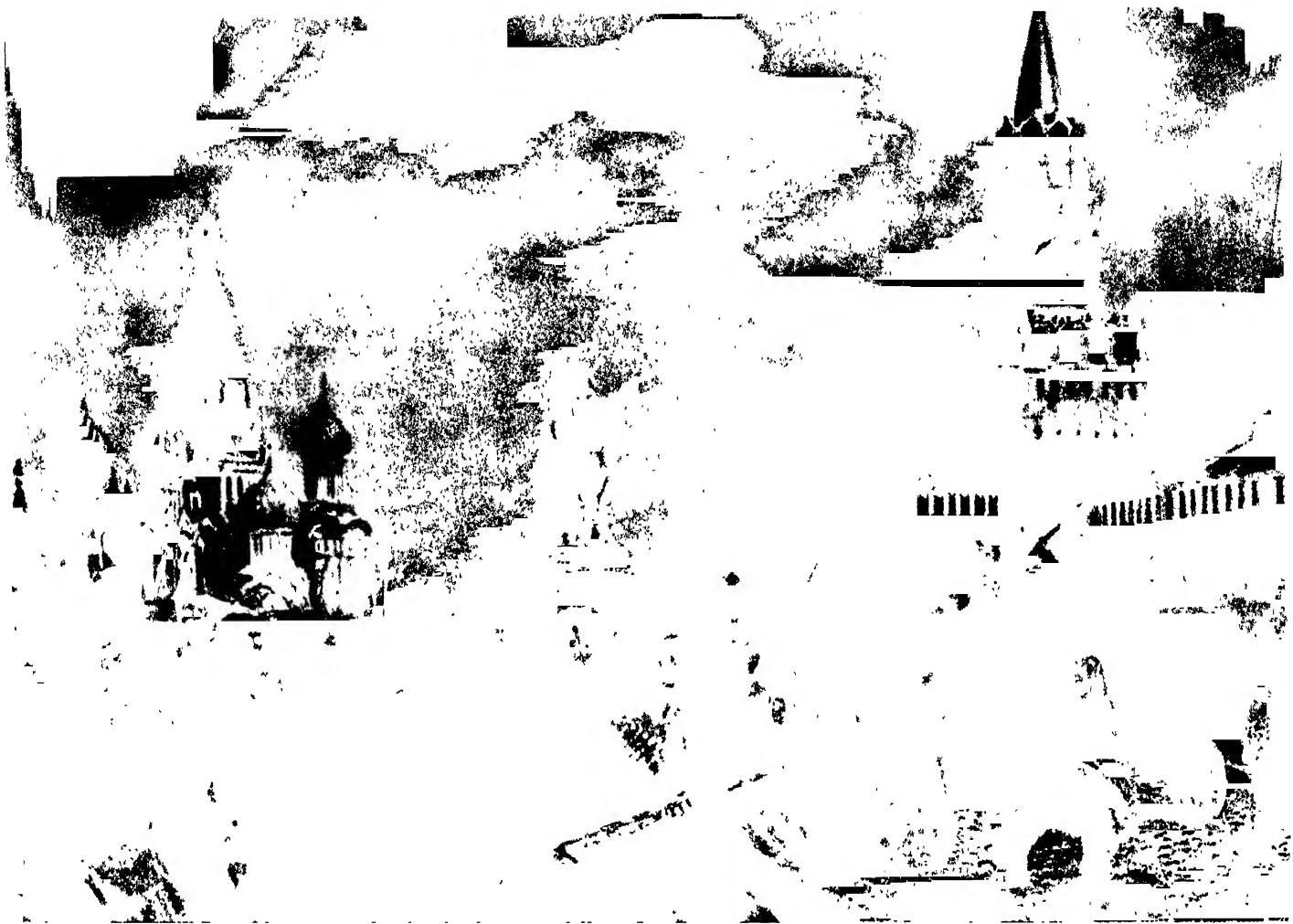
The Smolny, the headquarters of the Petrograd Soviet and of the Bolshevik Central Committee, became the headquarters of the revolution, from which all fighting orders emanated.

The Petrograd workers in those days showed what a splendid schooling they had received under the guidance of the Bolshevik Party. The revolutionary units of the army, prepared for the uprising by the work of the Bolsheviks, carried out fighting orders with precision and fought side by side with the Red Guards. The navy did not lag behind the army. Kronstadt was a stronghold of the Bolshevik Party, and had long since refused to recognize the authority of the Provisional Government. The cruiser *Aurora* trained its guns on the Winter Palace, and on October 25 their thunder ushered in a new era, the era of the Great Socialist Revolution.

On October 25 (November 7), the Bolsheviks issued a manifesto "To the Citizens of Russia" announcing that the bourgeois Provisional Government had been deposed and that state power had passed into the hands of the Soviets.

The Provisional Government had taken refuge in the Winter Palace under the protection of cadets and shock battalions. On the night of October 25 the revolutionary workers, soldiers and sailors took the Winter Palace by storm and arrested the Provisional Government.

The armed uprising in Petrograd had won.



Drawing by A. Yermolayev

THE OCTOBER UPRISING IN MOSCOW

The Great October Socialist Revolution

THIRTY YEARS

THE GREAT OCTOBER SOCIALIST REVOLUTION marked a radical turning point in world history.

The world's finest minds, expressing the aspirations of the masses, had dreamed for centuries of a golden age, a better social order of the future. The ways and means by which this better social order could be created were pointed out by the genius of Lenin and Stalin; they developed the great ideas expounded by Marx and Engels in their theory of scientific Communism and evolved them into a cogent and invincible doctrine and guide to action—the doctrine of Leninism.

Armed with the great ideas of Leninism, with its concrete

program of revolutionary action, and led by the Bolshevik Party, the working class of Russia, on November 7, (October 25) 1917, effected a revolution which culminated in a complete victory of the exploited over the exploiters. This was the Great October Socialist Revolution.

The Socialist Revolution destroyed the old bourgeois-landlord system and established a new state *system*—the Soviet socialist multi-national state, a system quite new to history, the concrete forms of which were discovered by Lenin. The working class became the dominant and directing force in the country.

The expropriation of landlords and capitalists formed the basis of a new *Social system* which is built up on a solid foundation of socialist property.

The revolution was a gigantic leap forward in the history of Russia. The Bolshevik Party not only saved Russia from the loss of her national independence. It emancipated Russia's millions, her numerous nationalities, from bourgeois and feudal exploitation, from police tyranny and national-colonial oppression, from patriarchal rule and political debasement, and led them into the highroad of historical progress, into the road of socialist development, thus elevating them to the position of the vanguard of progressive mankind. A new era in the history of the peoples of Russia was ushered in.

The epochal victories achieved in the field of socialist construction followed by the Soviet Union's great mission of liberation in the Second World War, increased the significance of the U.S.S.R. as a mighty bulwark against the sinister forces of aggression and world reaction. The U.S.S.R. became the guiding light and the hope of all the oppressed and the exploited.

The Second World War brought utter defeat to Germany and Japan, the most aggressive imperialist powers. Mighty democratic, national-liberation movements are growing in the European countries and in China, India, Indonesia, Palestine and Burma. The indisputable justice of the progressive, emancipatory ideas of the Great October Socialist Revolution has released the forces of progress and democracy for the struggle against reaction and oppression and is leading to profound changes in the political life of the nations of the world.

"It is precisely for this reason that the *victory* of the October Revolution signifies a radical change in the history of mankind, a radical change in the historical destiny of world capitalism, a radical change in the liberation movement of the world proletariat, a radical change in the methods of struggle and the forms of organization, in the life and traditions, in the culture and ideology of the exploited masses throughout the world." (*Stalin*)

The Great October Socialist Revolution gave inception to a new, socialist *method of production*. That, however, was only the beginning. The socialist state had received an extremely poor economic inheritance from its predecessor. History confronted the young socialist state with the alternative—either perish or take a gigantic leap forward. The country had to be lifted out of its technical backwardness, rendered impregnable to armed attack and set full speed on the highroad of socialist development. This was a formidable task—and it required the wisdom of Lenin and Stalin, the organizing power of the Bolshevik Party, the sagacity and flexibility of the policies of the socialist state and the devoted labour and indomitable spirit of the people to accomplish it.

After the industrial revolution it took Great Britain, the oldest capitalist country in the world, about *two hundred years* to reach her present stage of industrial development; and to do this Britain employed a policy of plundering the colonies and impoverishing the masses. In no more than *thirteen years* the Soviet Union covered the whole path of transition from backwardness to progress, employing its own resources and without the aid of burdensome foreign loans. By 1940 the Soviet Union had increased her large-scale industries to twelve times what they had been in 1913; production of the means of production had been increased twenty-fold in the same period. The fulfilment of the first Five-Year Plan (1928-32) gave the Soviet Union a total industrial output exceeding that of France; the second Five-Year Plan (1933-37) brought industrial output up to a level higher than that of Germany and Britain, thus giving the Soviet Union first place in Europe. This was the *leap forward* that made a backward country an advanced one, and turned an agrarian country into an industrial power.

In the bourgeois world capitalism has dominated agriculture for more than a *hundred years*. And yet, in this present age of radio and telemechanics, agriculture still presents a picture of disunity, technical backwardness and the terrible disintegration of peasant farms. The bourgeoisie has shown itself incapable of solving age-old agrarian problems.

The Bolshevik Party and the Soviet state, on the basis of the Lenin-Stalin theory of the socialist reform of agriculture

and a powerful socialist industry, in the course of *twelve years* prepared and accomplished a profound revolution in the rural districts. The system of small peasant commodity producers with its ancient history of decline and mass suffering was replaced by the new *collective-farm system*, based on public ownership and collective labour.

The biggest and most-highly mechanized farms in the world replaced the 25,000,000 scattered and backward peasant holdings. The collective farms, developing in accordance with the laws of *extended socialist reproduction* have shown that they possess unlimited possibilities for the increase of social wealth and for improving the material well-being and culture of the new Soviet peasantry. The rate of development of socialist agriculture is about eight to ten times that of capitalist agriculture or that of the countryside before the collectivization.

The successful implementation of the Stalin program for the socialist reconstruction of the country resulted in the formation and consolidation of the new socialist system of economy. The technical and economic backwardness of the country has become a thing of the past. The Soviet social system has replaced numerous economic formations by a *single socialist economy*; this is the basis on which the *moral and political unity* of the Soviet people has been built up. Soviet patriotism and the friendship of the peoples—these are new motive forces that have come into being, motive forces that constitute the source of a tremendous rise in the productive forces and the culture of the Soviet Union.

The Patriotic War (1941-45) demonstrated the great vitality and undoubted superiority of the Soviet social and state system over any non-Soviet system. The war also showed that the Soviet Union now possesses the finest, most powerful modern army with excellent equipment and a full complement of experienced officers; it is an army of high moral integrity, with splendid fighting qualities.

The Soviet social system, born of the Great October Socialist Revolution, is a genuinely *popular* system.

In the capitalist countries the state and the people are hostile, antagonistic forces. It is inevitable that bourgeois democracy should be limited, curtailed and hypocritical. Bourgeois constitutions loudly proclaim a *formal equality* but by the establishment of property, age, racial and other franchise qualifications the bourgeoisie places many millions of people outside the narrow framework of bourgeois democracy.

With the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution the people have for the first time in world history become the builders of a new way of life. All exploiting classes have been swept away and a sound alliance of the working class, the new Soviet peasantry and the new Soviet intelligentsia has been established. The entire Soviet people has been drawn into active participation in socialist construction.

After many centuries of toil for a master class the masses now work for themselves, for their Soviet society. The contradiction between the social character of production and the private form of appropriation, the fundamental contradiction in capitalist society, has been eliminated. All social wealth is created by the people and disposed of by the people. The policy of the socialist state expresses the basic interests of the people and, together with the socialist mode of production, which precludes the exploitation of man by man, crises, unemployment and parasitic appropriation, constitutes the solid, deep-going foundation of fully developed socialist democracy.

In the early days of the proletarian revolution Lenin set the task of lifting up the lowliest of the lowly to the status of makers of history. This has been done. In all the antagonistic social systems that preceded Socialism the lowliest of the lowly were kept out of politics, out of history; they have now been raised to the high status of makers of history. At the 1946 elections to the Supreme Soviet 101,450,000 electors (99.7 per cent of those entitled to vote) took part in the balloting in accordance with the principle of universal suffrage and expressed their implicit confidence in the socialist state and its policies. The history of bourgeois democracy does not and cannot show any such example of mass participation in political life, such a *unity of state and people*.

The Great October Socialist Revolution liberated tens of millions of the inhabitants of the former Russian Empire from the yoke of national and colonial oppression. It gave

V. I. LENIN
TALKING WITH RED GUARDS
IN THE SMOLNY



Painting by P. Vassiliev

them Soviet statehood and complete equality of rights. Many nations, national and ethnic groups, have, with the aid of the great Russian people made a gigantic forward stride from the middle ages to Socialism, and have skipped over the stage of capitalist development with its slow, tortuous process of ruination and suffering for the masses. The national policy of Lenin and Stalin has ensured the thriving development of economy and culture amongst formerly backward peoples.

True to the principles of liberty and independence for all nations, the Soviet Union, the most *progressive* and most *democratic* state in the world, became the vanguard and the chief motive force in the anti-fascist war of liberation. The Soviet people and their heroic armed forces saved mankind from fascist slavery.

The Second World War resulted in a very considerable strengthening of the international position and the prestige of the U.S.S.R. The policy of establishing a *cordon sanitaire* around the borders of the Soviet Union has suffered collapse. The peoples of the Eastern and South-Eastern countries in Europe have realized that they cannot entrust their fate to

reactionary rulers, have overthrown their reactionary regimes and established democracies.

The reactionary course that is being followed in world politics contrasts strongly with the progressive, democratic policy of the socialist state. At the Paris Peace Conference and in the United Nations Organization the Soviet Union has consistently pursued the foreign policy mapped out by Stalin, defending the struggle for peace, the universal reduction of armaments, the prohibition of the use of atomic energy for war purposes, the complete eradication of fascism, the curbing of the aggressors and the guarantee of liberty and independence for all nations, great and small. The great ideas of liberty proclaimed by the October Revolution put into practice in the Soviet Union and given legal force by the Stalin Constitution, have made the U.S.S.R. an example and a hope for all progressive mankind.

Stalin has placed before the Soviet people the tremendous tasks involved in the new Five-Year Plan: for the immediate future he set the task of overtaking the most highly-developed capitalist countries economically. The advantages in-

herent in the socialist system of economy will enable the Soviet Union to heal the deep wounds inflicted by the war within the short space of five years and at the same time to raise the level of industry, agriculture and the general well-being of the people above pre-war. These advantages make possible a further increase in the productive forces of the land of Socialism, will increase socialist wealth, create an abundance of the principal consumer goods and further raise the material well-being and culture of the people.

The Soviet people are not menaced by such inevitable concomitants of capitalism as ruinous crises and unemployment and, therefore, face the future with every confidence. Widespread participation in socialist competition and nation-wide enthusiasm for constructive effort, are evidence of the fact that the Soviet people regard the new Stalin Five-Year Plan as a matter of vital concern to themselves, as a militant program of struggle for the common good and for the prosperity of the peoples of the U.S.S.R.

The Great October Socialist Revolution, by setting up a social and political system in which the free development of each individual is a guarantee of the free development of all, has brought about a profound revolution in the minds of the people. The victory of Socialism established comradely cooperation and mutual assistance amongst the Soviet people. The interests of the individual harmonize with those of the whole nation. The creative powers and talents of the people, crushed and stifled by capitalism, are now being developed to the full. The peasant, who had for centuries been a petty proprietor and whose ideas were purely parochial, is now fully conscious of the interests of the state as a whole. The cultural revolution that has been effected has brought science and knowledge within the reach of large sections of the working people of all nations.

Victorious Socialism has brought the Soviet Union to the forefront of world progress and civilization as the acknowledged heir to all the spiritual treasures accumulated by mankind.



RED GUARDS AT THE SMOLNY. PETROGRAD, 1917

THE SECOND CONGRESS OF SOVIETS

Formation of the First Soviet Government Headed by Lenin

SECOND ALL-RUSSIAN Congress of Soviets opened in the Smolny at 10:45 p.m. on October 25 (November 7), 1917, when the uprising in Petrograd was already in the full flush of victory and the power in the capital had actually passed into the hands of the Petrograd Soviet.

The Bolsheviks secured an overwhelming majority at the congress. The Mensheviks, Bundists and Right Socialist-Revolutionaries, seeing that their day was done, left the congress, announcing that they refused to take any part in its labours. In a statement which was read at the Congress of Soviets they referred to the October Revolution as a "military plot." The congress condemned the Mensheviks and Socialist-Revolutionaries and, far from regretting their departure, welcomed it, for, it declared, thanks to the withdrawal of the traitors the congress had become a real revolutionary congress of workers' and soldiers' deputies.

The congress proclaimed that all power had passed to the Soviets:

"Backed by the will of the vast majority of the workers, soldiers and peasants, backed by the victorious uprising of the workers and the garrison which has taken place in Petrograd, the congress takes the power into its own hands"—the proclamation of the Second Congress of Soviets read.

On the night of October 26 (November 8), 1917, the Second Congress of Soviets adopted the *Decree on Peace*. The congress called upon the belligerent countries to conclude an immediate armistice for a period of not less than three months to permit negotiations for peace. While addressing itself to the governments and peoples of all the belligerent countries, the congress at the same time appealed to "the class-conscious workers of the three most advanced nations of mankind and the largest states participating in the present war, namely, Great Britain, France and Germany." It called upon these

workers to help "to bring to a successful conclusion the cause of peace, and at the same time the cause of the emancipation of the toiling and exploited masses of the population from all forms of slavery and all forms of exploitation."

That same night the Second Congress of Soviets adopted the *Decree on Land*, which proclaimed that "landlord ownership of land is abolished forthwith without compensation." The basis adopted for this agrarian law was a Mandate (*Nakaz*) of the peasantry, compiled from 242 mandates of peasants of various localities. In accordance with this Mandate private ownership of land was to be abolished forever and replaced by public, or state ownership of the land. The lands of the landlords, of the tsar's family and of the monasteries were to be turned over to all the toilers for their free use.

By this decree the peasantry received from the October Socialist Revolution over 150,000,000 dessiatins (over 400,000,000 acres) of land that had formerly belonged to the landlords, the bourgeoisie, the tsar's family, the monasteries and the churches.

Moreover, the peasants were released from paying rent to the landlords, which had amounted to about 500,000,000 gold rubles annually.

All mineral resources (oil, coal, ores, etc.), forests and waters became the property of the people.

Lastly, the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets formed the first Soviet government—the Council of People's Commissars—which consisted entirely of Bolsheviks. Lenin was elected Chairman of the first Council of People's Commissars.

This ended the labours of the historic Second Congress of Soviets.

The congress delegates dispersed to spread the news of the victory of the Soviets in Petrograd and to ensure the extension of the power of the Soviets to the whole country.

The First Soviet Decrees

Excerpts from the DECREE ON PEACE

THE WORKERS' AND PEASANTS' GOVERNMENT created by the revolution of October 24-25 and backed by the Soviets of Workers', Soldiers' and Peasants' Deputies calls upon all the belligerent nations and their governments to start immediate negotiations for a just, democratic peace.

By a just or democratic peace, for which the overwhelming majority of the working and toiling classes of all the belligerent countries, exhausted, tormented and racked by the war, are craving—a peace that has been most definitely and insistently demanded by the Russian workers and peasants ever since the overthrow of the tsarist monarchy—the government means an immediate peace without annexations (i.e., the seizure of foreign lands, or the forcible incorporation of foreign nations) and without indemnities.

The government of Russia calls upon all the belligerent nations to conclude such a peace immediately, and expresses its readiness to take the most resolute measures without the least delay, pending the final ratification of the terms of this peace by authoritative assemblies of the people's representatives of all countries and all nations.

...The government considers it the greatest of crimes against humanity to continue this war for the purpose of dividing up among the strong and rich nations the feeble nationalities they have conquered, and solemnly announces its determination immediately to sign terms of peace to stop this war on the conditions indicated, which are equally just for all nationalities without exception.

At the same time the government declares that it does not regard the above-mentioned terms of peace as an ultimatum; in other words, it is prepared to consider any other terms

of peace, but only insists that they be advanced by any of the belligerent nations as speedily as possible, and that in the proposals of peace there should be absolute clarity and the complete absence of all ambiguity and secrecy.

The government abolishes secret diplomacy, and, for its part, announces its firm intention to conduct all negotiations quite openly under the eyes of the whole people. It will immediately proceed to the full publication of the secret treaties endorsed or concluded by the government of landlords and capitalists from February to October 25, 1917.

The government proclaims the absolute and immediate annulment of everything contained in these secret treaties that is aimed, as is mostly the case, at securing advantages and privileges for the Russian landlords and capitalists and at the retention, or extension, of the annexations made by the Great Russians.

...The government proposes an immediate armistice to the governments and peoples of all the belligerent countries, and, for its part, considers it desirable that this armistice should be concluded for a period of not less than three months, i.e., a period long enough to permit the completion of negotiations for peace with the participation of the representatives of all peoples or nations, without exception, involved in or compelled to take part in the war and the summoning of authoritative assemblies of the representatives of the peoples of all countries for the final ratification of the terms of peace.

(Adopted by the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets on November 8 [October 26], 1917.)

Excerpts from the DECREE ON THE LAND

1. LANDLORD OWNERSHIP of land is abolished forthwith without compensation.

2. The landed estates, as also all crown, monasterial and church lands, with all their livestock, implements, farm buildings and everything pertaining thereto, shall be placed at the disposal of the rural area Land Committees and the district Soviets of Peasants' Deputies pending the convocation of the Constituent Assembly.

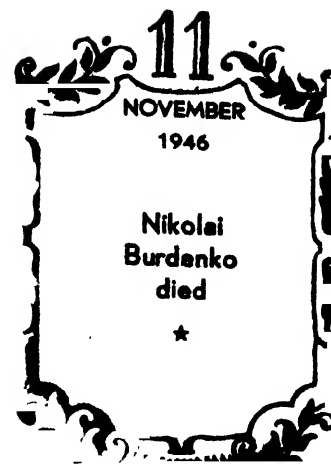
3. All damage to confiscated property, which henceforth belongs to the whole people, is proclaimed a felony punishable by the revolutionary courts. The district Soviets of Peasants' Deputies shall take all necessary measures to guarantee the observance of strict order during the confiscation of the landed estates, to determine estates of what size, and what particular estates, shall be subject to confiscation, to draw up

inventories of all property confiscated and to protect in a strict revolutionary way all agricultural enterprises transferred to the people, with all structures, implements, livestock, supplies, etc.

4. The following peasant Mandate, compiled by the *Izvestia of the All-Russian Soviet of Peasants' Deputies* from 242 local peasant mandates and published in No. 88 of the *Izvestia* (Petrograd, August 19, 1917), shall everywhere serve as a directive in carrying through the great land reforms until the final decision on the latter is taken by the Constituent Assembly.

5. The land of ordinary peasants and ordinary Cossacks shall not be confiscated.

(Adopted by the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets on November 8 [October 26], 1917.)



NIKOLAI BURDENKO

NIKOLAI BURDENKO

(1878-1946)

PROFESSOR NIKOLAI NILOVICH BURDENKO, founder of Soviet neurosurgery, was an outstanding scientist and the first President of the Academy of Medical Sciences of the U.S.S.R. Burdenko proved that neurosurgery must develop in close interrelation with physiology, biochemistry, microbiology and pathological anatomy. His surgical operations on the brain brought him world fame.

The grandson of a serf, Nikolai Burdenko was born in 1878 in the village of Kamenka in Penza gubernia. At the price of great efforts and hardships the youth entered the Medical Faculty of Tomak University. He studied avidly and spent all his spare time in the anatomy theatre. However, his studies were unexpectedly disrupted when he was banished from the city for a heated speech delivered at a students' meeting against the despotism of the tsarist regime.

During the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05, Burdenko was a medical orderly at the front; under enemy fire he bandaged the wounded, performed simple operations, and carried the heavily wounded from the battlefield. He was awarded the St. George Cross for his bravery. After the war Burdenko once again resumed his studies, this time at the Yuriev (now, Tartu) University in Estonia from which he graduated in 1906. Within three years the young physician wrote a thesis and received the title of Doctor of Medicine. Soon after, he was elected professor of a chair of surgery.

The young scholar did not confine himself to surgery; he displayed keen interest in allied subjects as well. He began to introduce the principles of experimental medicine into clinical practice. His first scientific works dealt with the physiology of the liver, the duodenum, the pancreas and the stomach. His many-sided researches on the spinal cord and the brain led to a new method in surgical operations which came to be known as the Burdenko method.

When World War I broke out, Burdenko joined the army and worked in front-line hospitals. He was soon appointed chief inspector of the Army Medical Service, in which capacity he showed great organizational skill. Administrative activities taxed his strength and time, still he succeeded in performing more than 2,000 operations during the war. Gas infections, which often threatened the lives of even the slightly wounded, received his closest attention.

Upon Burdenko's initiative a hospital, specializing in skull and brain diseases, was opened in Dvinsk. Here he began his neurosurgical operations.

Wide prospects were opened for the scientist after the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution. Thanks to the help of the Soviet government, Burdenko organized a neurosurgical research institute which soon became a scientific centre specializing in the theory and practice of brain surgery.

The scientist introduced bold and original methods for the most complicated operations on the brain cortex and for operating tumors on the third and fourth ventricle of the brain.

Burdenko made important contributions to the solution of such problems as shock, the treatments of wounds and general infections, and the neurogenic treatment of ulcers.

A versatile surgeon, world-famous scientist and public-spirited citizen, Burdenko never dissociated himself from the clinic and the operating table, and capably combined his work of practitioner and researcher.

During the Great Patriotic War he occupied the post of Chief Surgeon of the Armed Forces of the U.S.S.R., at which post he made the fullest use of his energy and skill. He improved the organizational side of field surgery, giving to it his rich experience, his indomitable energy, all his knowledge.

Burdenko was President of the Society of Russian Surgeons; thanks to his initiative the Academy of Medical Sciences of the U.S.S.R. was organized shortly after the end of the war.

Burdenko was awarded a Stalin Prize for his outstanding achievements. The title of Hero of Socialist Labour was conferred upon him in 1943. He was twice elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

Burdenko worked indefatigably till the end of his days. Even attacks of illness could not break his will. A month before his death, a paper written by him on the *Treatment of Wounds at the Front during the Patriotic War*, was read at the 25th All-Union Congress of Surgeons.

Nikolai Burdenko died on November 11, 1946, at the age of 68. The name of this man of science and great surgeon, pedagogue and citizen will forever remain in the history of medicine and the history of the Soviet country.



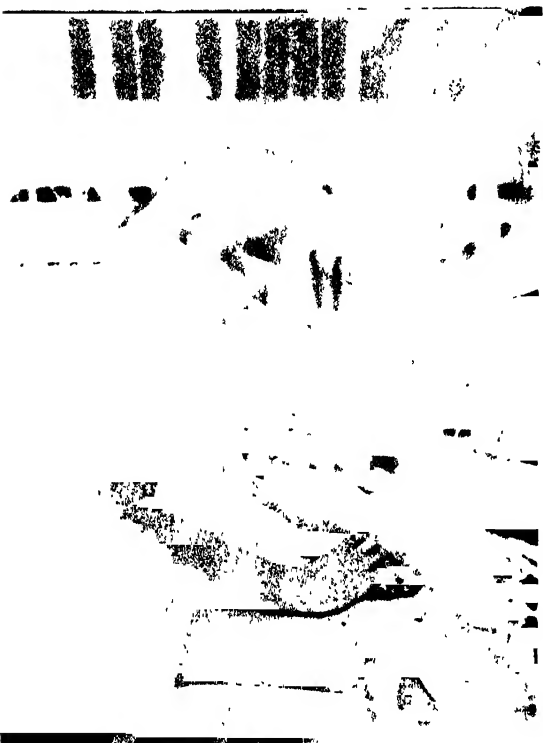
GRIGORI ORJONIKIDZE, JOSEPH STALIN AND KLIMENT VOROSHILOV
AT THE CONFERENCE OF STAKHANOVITES, 1935



... THE SECOND SOURCE OF THE STAKHANOV MOVEMENT IS THE FACT THAT THERE IS NO EXPLOITATION IN OUR COUNTRY. PEOPLE IN OUR COUNTRY DO NOT WORK FOR EXPLOITERS, FOR THE ENRICHMENT OF PARASITES, BUT FOR THEMSELVES, FOR THEIR OWN CLASS, FOR THEIR OWN, SOVIET SOCIETY, WHERE POWER IS WIELDED BY THE BEST MEMBERS OF THE WORKING CLASS. THAT IS WHY LABOUR IN OUR COUNTRY HAS SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE, AND IS A MATTER OF HONOUR AND GLORY. UNDER CAPITALISM LABOUR BEARS A PRIVATE AND PERSONAL CHARACTER. YOU HAVE PRODUCED MORE—WELL, THEN, RECEIVE MORE, AND LIVE AS BEST YOU CAN. NOBODY KNOWS YOU, OR WANTS TO KNOW YOU. YOU WORK FOR THE CAPITALISTS, YOU ENRICH THEM? WELL, WHAT DO YOU EXPECT? THAT IS WHY THEY HIRED YOU, SO THAT YOU SHOULD ENRICH THE EXPLOITERS. IF YOU DO NOT AGREE WITH THAT, JOIN THE RANKS OF THE UNEMPLOYED AND GET ALONG AS BEST YOU CAN—"WE SHALL FIND OTHERS WHO ARE MORE TRACTABLE." THAT IS WHY PEOPLE'S LABOUR IS NOT VALUED VERY HIGHLY UNDER CAPITALISM. UNDER SUCH CONDITIONS, OF COURSE, THERE CAN BE NO ROOM FOR A STAKHANOV MOVEMENT. BUT THINGS ARE DIFFERENT UNDER THE SOVIET SYSTEM. HERE THE WORKING MAN IS HELD IN ESTEEM. HERE HE WORKS NOT FOR THE EXPLOITERS, BUT FOR HIMSELF, FOR HIS CLASS, FOR SOCIETY. HERE THE WORKING MAN CANNOT FEEL NEGLECTED AND ALONE. ON THE CONTRARY, THE MAN WHO WORKS FEELS HIMSELF A FREE CITIZEN OF HIS COUNTRY, A PUBLIC FIGURE, IN A WAY. AND IF HE WORKS WELL AND GIVES SOCIETY HIS BEST—HE IS A HERO OF LABOUR, AND IS COVERED WITH GLORY. OBVIOUSLY, THE STAKHANOV MOVEMENT COULD HAVE ARISEN ONLY UNDER SUCH CONDITION.

STALIN

VASSILI MATROSOV—cutter at the Paris Commune Shoe Factory in Moscow, achieved a high degree of labour productivity and economy of material by his efficient technique in laying out his patterns on the leather. He initiated the idea of drawing up plans for the introduction of Stakhanovite methods of work in the shop as a whole. His initiative was a valuable contribution to the pre-schedule fulfilment of the footwear industry's post-war Five-Year Plan. The Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. awarded him a Stalin Prize for devising highly efficient methods of work, which have been widely adopted in the various factories of the light industry of the U.S.S.R.



MARIA VOLKOVA

ELIZAR KURATOV is a forge hand at one of the largest Soviet plants—the Molotov Automobile Plant in the city of Gorky. He is a follower of Alexander Busygin—the famous initiator of the Stakhanov movement in the machine-building industry.

Kuratov was born in Siberia and is now past forty. He has won fame by transferring Busygin's experience to forge machinery and has worked out his own "Kuratov method" consisting in the skilful intensification of metal-heating and acceleration of forging. A German air-raid in the summer of 1943 destroyed the roof of the forge shop of the Gorky Automobile Plant. The forge shop now worked only in the daytime since brightly illuminated at night it would have made a convenient target for the German flyers. It was necessary to do twenty-four hours' work only in daylight. Boldly employing his system Kuratov considerably raised the productivity of labour.

Kuratov has also successfully employed his method since the war, reducing the forging time to one-third of the original time allotted.

Elizar Kuratov's system of work on forge machines has found wide application in the forge shops of the Soviet automobile plants. In June 1946 the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. awarded Kuratov the Stalin Prize for the thorough rationalization of the methods of forging automobile parts, which resulted in an increased productivity of labour, an improvement in the quality of production and considerable economy of fuel.



VASSILI MATROSOV

MARIA VOLKOVA—weavers' brigade leader at the Orekhovo Cotton Mill. She gained country-wide celebrity during the war when, by means of rationalization, her brigade, though reduced in numbers, raised labour efficiency 67 per cent and produced 220,000 metres of fabric above plan. After the war she perfected her method of work and now ranks among the foremost in the All-Union Socialist Emulation campaign for the fulfilment of the 1947 plan ahead of schedule in honour of the 30th anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution. She is the recipient of a Stalin Prize for introducing high-efficiency rationalization methods in the textile industry, which make possible the operation of a great number of looms simultaneously.

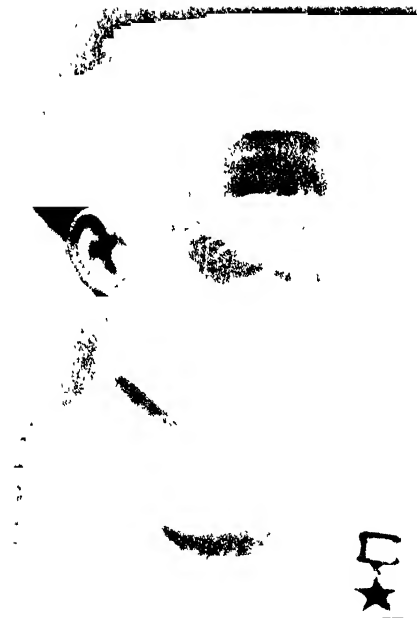


ELIZAR KURATOV



ALEXANDER ZVEZDIN

ALEXANDER ZVEZDIN was born in 1903. He especially distinguished himself at the beginning of the war when the Germans were approaching the Soviet capital. Only low quality fuel, of a type that had never been utilized in the iron and steel industry, was available for the open-hearth furnaces. Even under these conditions Zvezdin more than doubled the output of his furnace. His method of smelting steel on low quality fuel was an important and significant innovation. The title of Hero of Socialist Labour was conferred upon A. Zvezdin in 1943, and in 1946 he was elected deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.



RUSTAM RUSTAMOV

RUSTAM RUSTAMOV, an Azerbaijani, was born in 1910. He started to work in the Baku oil industry in 1932 as an unskilled labourer. Subsequently he began work on the derricks and qualified as a derrick master. Carrying out a number of rationalization measures, he greatly accelerated the sinking of oil wells both on land and on the sea bed.

The maximum speed obtained by Rustam Rustamov in drilling on the bottom of the sea was 1,430 metres a month with one drill.

Rustamov became especially famous during the war. In 1943 he sank 12 new oil wells, almost all of them in record time.

The high title of Hero of Socialist Labour was conferred upon Rustam Rustamov in January 1944.



NIKOLAI LUNIN

NIKOLAI LUNIN was born in 1915. He worked as a locomotive driver and introduced a system which made it possible to run the locomotive for a long time without stopping for an overhaul, and which lengthened the life of the locomotive. Hundreds and thousands of railway workers followed his method, became "Luninites," running their locomotives with the best results.

This movement became especially widespread on the Soviet railways during the war, and it greatly facilitated the rapid transport of supplies to the front. During the first months of the war, when Moscow was cut off from the adjacent sources of fuel, Lunin drove trains loaded with coal to the capital at the speed of an express train.

The title of Hero of Socialist Labour was conferred upon Nikolai Lunin in 1943.

HEROES OF SOCIALIST LABOUR

ON DECEMBER 27, 1938, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. published a decree instituting the title of Hero of Socialist Labour as the country's highest mark of distinction.

The Rules governing the award of this title state:

"The title of Hero of Socialist Labour is the highest mark of distinction in the sphere of economic and cultural achievement, and is conferred upon persons who by their particularly valuable innovations in the province of industry, agriculture, transport, trade, scientific discoveries and technical inventions have rendered exceptional services to the state, and have been instrumental in promoting the national economy, culture and science, and the growth of the might and glory of the U.S.S.R."

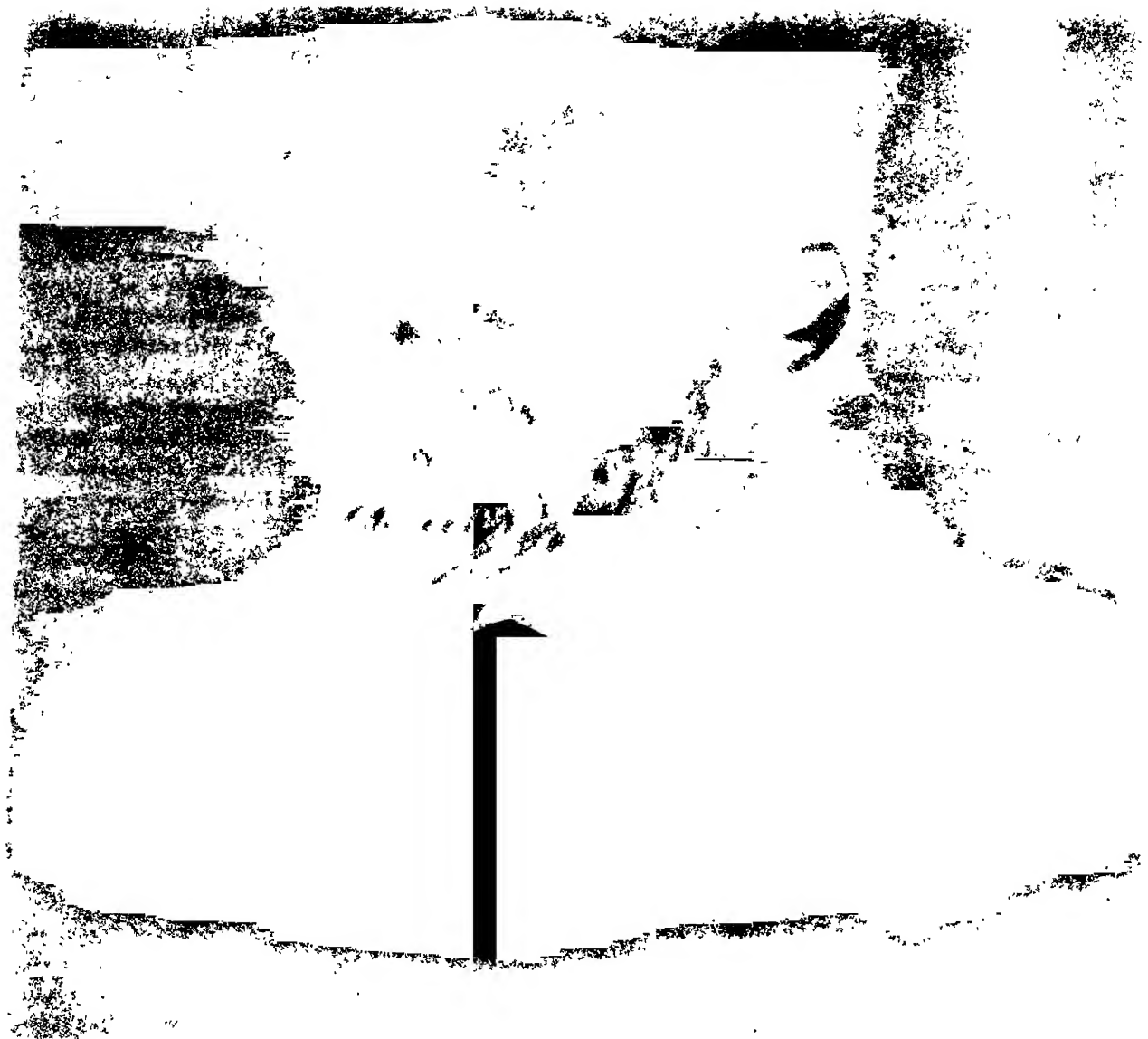
The title of Hero of Socialist Labour is conferred upon citizens of the U.S.S.R. by decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. Besides the certificate of award, the grantee receives simultaneously the Order of Lenin and the "Sickle and Hammer" Gold Medal.

From the day of its establishment up to November 7, 1946, the title of Hero of Socialist Labour was conferred on 217 persons. Their number includes prominent figures in

the political and economic life of the Soviet Union; eminent scientists, designers and inventors whose discoveries and contributions played a prominent part in the scientific and technical progress of the land of Soviets; organizers of production and managers of enterprises; and many workers—outstanding innovators in production, locomotive engineers, track walkers, steel smelters and drillers.

The first man in the country awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labour was Joseph Stalin. It was conferred upon him on the occasion of his 60th birthday, "for exceptional services in the organization of the Bolshevik Party, the establishment of the Soviet state, the building of socialist society in the U.S.S.R. and the consolidation of friendship among the peoples of the Soviet Union."

In the U.S.S.R., where one's work alone determines the position one occupies in society, the names of the Heroes of Socialist Labour are widely known among the working people and are held in high honour and esteem. It is a significant fact that on February 10, 1946, the majority of the Heroes of Socialist Labour were elected deputies to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.



IVAN SECHENOV



IVAN SECHENOV

(1829-1905)

IVAN MIKHAILOVICH SECHENOV, founder of the Russian school of physiology and one of the world's foremost physiologists, was born on August 13, 1829. After graduating from the Medical Faculty of the Moscow University he went abroad on a long-term scientific mission. In 1860 Sechenov was elected professor of the Medicosurgical Academy, now the Military Medical Academy, in St. Petersburg. He was the first in Russia to lecture on the physiology of neuromuscular activity and on electrophysiology, accompanying his lectures with numerous examples. The lectures earned him the Gold Medal of the Russian Academy of Sciences.

At the same time, the young professor organized a laboratory for his students, incidentally, the first of its kind in the Academy. Many of his students later became scholars of repute. With his discovery of the hitherto unknown but highly important phenomenon of central inhibition in the nervous system, Sechenov opened a new epoch in physiology, thus laying the basis for the objective study of higher nervous activity. The subtle methods he evolved made it possible to study the phenomena occurring in the various spheres of the central nervous system.

In 1863 Sechenov published his famous treatise *Reflexes of the Brain* in the magazine *Meditsinsky Vestnik* (*Medical News*), in which he developed the idea that "all conscious and unconscious acts, as far as their origin is concerned, are reflexes," and that reflexes are inevitable reactions of the organism to external impressions.

His proofs of the close connection between the phenomena of higher nervous activity and the material processes in the brain cortex played an enormous role in science; they enabled science to explain the phenomena taking place in the brain from a materialistic point of view. Sechenov's name became the symbol for progress in science.

In 1901 Sechenov published his *Notes on Man's Motions at Work* in which he treated the question of the eight-hour working day from the point of view of physiology, opening up a new branch of science, that of labour physiology. He also made an important contribution to the study of gases in the blood of animals.

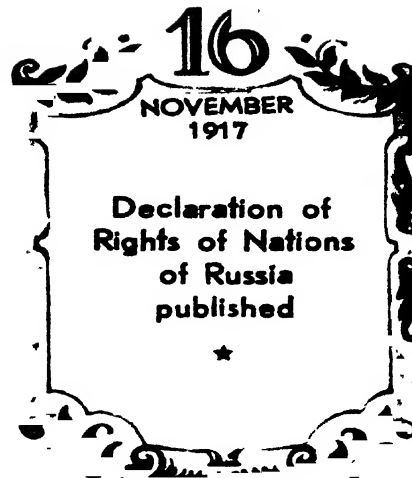
Ivan Pavlov, the famous physiologist, wrote: "Yes, I am happy that together with Ivan Mikhailovich and a host of my dear colleagues I have acquired a whole undivided animal organism for physiological research instead of a part of it. And this is entirely and unquestionably our Russian contribution to world science, to general human thought."

A friend of the great Russian men of science—Ilya Mechnikov, Kliment Timiryazev and Nikolai Umov—Sechenov was also one of those who championed the idea of university education for women in Russia.

Sechenov was not only an outstanding researcher, he was also a great educator. He delivered public lectures, read papers and published popular scientific articles on various questions of natural history. Even in his old age he never refused to address workers' audiences. "No other Russian scientist," Timiryazev wrote, "has had such an extensive and beneficial influence on Russian science and on the development of the scientific spirit in our society, as Sechenov." Sechenov's views played a progressive role in the social and political life of Russia in the second half of the 19th century.

Untiring creative labour for the benefit of the people characterizes Sechenov's life.

The great scientist died at the age of 76 on November 15, 1905. The name of Ivan Sechenov, the brilliant Russian physiologist, is among the great names of which our country is justly proud and which were referred to by Joseph Stalin in his speech on November 6, 1941.



DECLARATION OF RIGHTS OF THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA

THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION OF THE WORKERS AND PEASANTS BEGAN UNDER THE GENERAL BANNER OF LIBERATION.


THE PEASANTS ARE BEING LIBERATED FROM THE POWER OF THE LANDLORDS, FOR LANDED PROPRIETORSHIP NO LONGER EXISTS—IT HAS BEEN ABOLISHED. THE SOLDIERS AND SAILORS ARE BEING LIBERATED FROM THE POWER OF THE DESPOTIC GENERALS, FOR THE GENERALS WILL HENCEFORTH BE ELECTED AND BE SUBJECT TO RECALL. THE WORKERS ARE BEING LIBERATED FROM THE CAPRICE AND DESPOTISM OF THE CAPITALISTS, FOR HENCEFORTH WORKERS' CONTROL OVER THE MILLS AND FACTORIES WILL BE ESTABLISHED. EVERYTHING THAT IS LIVING AND VIRILE IS BEING LIBERATED FROM THE DETESTED FETTERS.

THERE REMAIN ONLY THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA WHICH HAVE SUFFERED AND ARE SUFFERING FROM OPPRESSION AND DESPOTISM, AND WHOSE LIBERATION MUST BE BEGUN IMMEDIATELY AND ACCOMPLISHED DECISIVELY AND FOR ALL TIME.

IN THE ERA OF TSARISM THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA WERE SYSTEMATICALLY INCITED ONE AGAINST ANOTHER. THE RESULTS OF THIS POLICY ARE WELL KNOWN: MASSACRES AND POGROMS ON THE ONE HAND, AND THE ENSLAVEMENT OF THE NATIONS ON THE OTHER.

THIS SHAMEFUL POLICY OF INCITEMENT HAS ENDED, AND THERE MUST BE NO RETURN TO IT. HENCEFORTH, IT MUST BE REPLACED BY A POLICY OF VOLUNTARY AND HONEST ALLIANCE BETWEEN THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA.

IN THE PERIOD OF IMPERIALISM, AFTER THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION, WHEN THE POWER PASSED INTO THE HANDS OF THE CADET BOURGEOISIE, THE UNCONCEALED POLICY OF INCITEMENT GAVE PLACE TO A POLICY OF COWARDLY DISTRUST OF THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA, A POLICY OF PINPRICKS AND PROVOCATION, CONCEALED BY VERBAL



PROCLAMATIONS OF THE "FREEDOM" AND "EQUALITY" OF THE NATIONS. THE RESULTS OF THIS POLICY ARE WELL KNOWN: INTENSIFICATION OF NATIONAL ENMITY AND UNDERMINING OF MUTUAL CONFIDENCE.

THIS UNWORTHY POLICY OF LYING AND DISTRUST, OF PINPRICKS AND PROVOCATION, MUST BE ENDED. IT MUST HENCEFORTH BE REPLACED BY A FRANK AND HONEST POLICY THAT WILL LEAD TO *COMPLETE MUTUAL CONFIDENCE* AMONG THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA.

IT IS ONLY BY SUCH CONFIDENCE THAT AN HONEST AND DURABLE ALLIANCE BETWEEN THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA CAN BE SECURED.

IT IS ONLY BY SUCH AN ALLIANCE THAT THE WORKERS AND PEASANTS OF THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA CAN BE WELDED TOGETHER INTO A SINGLE REVOLUTIONARY FORCE CAPABLE OF WITHSTANDING ALL ATTEMPTS OF THE IMPERIALIST, ANNEXATIONIST BOURGEOISIE.

IT WAS ON THESE GROUNDS THAT IN JUNE 1917 THE FIRST CONGRESS OF SOVIETS PROCLAIMED THE RIGHT OF THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA TO FREEDOM OF SELF-DETERMINATION.

IN OCTOBER 1917 THE SECOND CONGRESS OF SOVIETS ENDORSED THIS INALIENABLE RIGHT OF THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA IN A MORE DECIDED AND DEFINITE FORM.

IN PURSUANCE OF THE WILL OF THESE CONGRESSES, THE COUNCIL OF PEOPLE'S COMMISSARS HAS DECIDED TO BASE ITS ACTIVITIES WITH REGARD TO THE NATIONALITIES OF RUSSIA ON THE FOLLOWING PRINCIPLES:

1. *THE EQUALITY AND SOVEREIGNTY OF THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA.*
2. *THE RIGHT OF THE NATIONS OF RUSSIA TO FREEDOM OF SELF-DETERMINATION, INCLUDING THE RIGHT TO SECEDE AND FORM INDEPENDENT STATES.*
3. *ABOLITION OF ALL NATIONAL AND NATIONAL-RELIGIOUS PRIVILEGES AND RESTRICTIONS WHATSOEVER.*
4. *FREEDOM OF DEVELOPMENT FOR THE NATIONAL MINORITIES AND ETHNOGRAPHIC GROUPS INHABITING THE TERRITORY OF RUSSIA.*

THE SPECIFIC DECREES NECESSITATED BY THIS WILL BE DRAWN UP IMMEDIATELY AFTER A COMMISSION ON NATIONAL AFFAIRS HAS BEEN FORMED.

IN THE NAME OF THE RUSSIAN REPUBLIC,

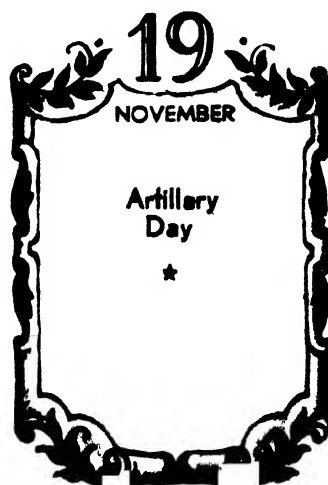
JOSEPH DJUGASHVILI-STALIN
People's Commissar of National Affairs

V. ULYANOV (LENIN)
Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars

November 15 (2), 1917



A BATTERY OF HEAVY ARTILLERY ON THE FIRING LINE. APRIL 1944



SOVIET ARTILLERY

RUSSIAN ARTILLERY has long been famed for its power and efficacy.

Such eminent Russian statesmen and soldiers as Ivan Grozny, Peter the Great, Generals Suvorov and Kutuzov were fully alive to the importance of the artillery, to the development of which they devoted no little attention.

In capitalist Russia, however, the backward state of industry did not provide favourable conditions for the development and improvement of artillery, a fact which made itself signally evident during World War I, when the Russian army experienced a chronic shortage of ordnance and shells.

After the victory of the Socialist Revolution, the artillery came to occupy its rightful place of honour in the system of the Soviet Union's armed forces.

It played an important part in the Civil War and foreign intervention, but it was not until the years of socialist construction that it rose to a high degree of development. The Stalin Five-Year Plans created a powerful industrial foundation for the development of modern Soviet artillery. Joseph Stalin invested the Soviet Army with the most advanced of military theories and specified the role and importance of artillery in modern warfare. He took a personal interest in the development and improvement of Soviet artillery and built up an excellent personnel of Soviet gun designers, among whom are such brilliant inventors of new ordnance models as Vassili Grabin, Fyodor Petrov, Ilya Ivanov, and others.

During the Great Patriotic War with fascist Germany, the Soviet artillery never once experienced a shortage of guns and supplies. During the last three years of the war, socialist industry was producing annually as many as 120,000 guns of various calibre and 100,000 mortars. In 1944 alone the munitions industry turned out over 240,000,000 shells, bombs and mines and 7,400,000,000 cartridges. Efficiently organized and equipped with first-class materiel the artillery became the Soviet Army's principal striking power.

The German command calculated on routing the

main forces of the Soviet Army by an assault of tank divisions and aircraft and winning the war in two or three months.

The German "Blitzkrieg" plans were utterly defeated, and their failure was in no little measure brought about by Soviet artillery, which was the principal means of destroying the German tanks. Even in the early period of the war some of Germany's best tank divisions were smashed by the deadly fire of the Soviet artillery.

Our artillery grew in power and efficiency in the course of the war. During the defence of Moscow, Soviet artillerymen accomplished unparalleled feats of heroism and prowess. In the battle for Moscow the Germans lost about 1,500 tanks, most of which were accounted for by the Soviet batteries.

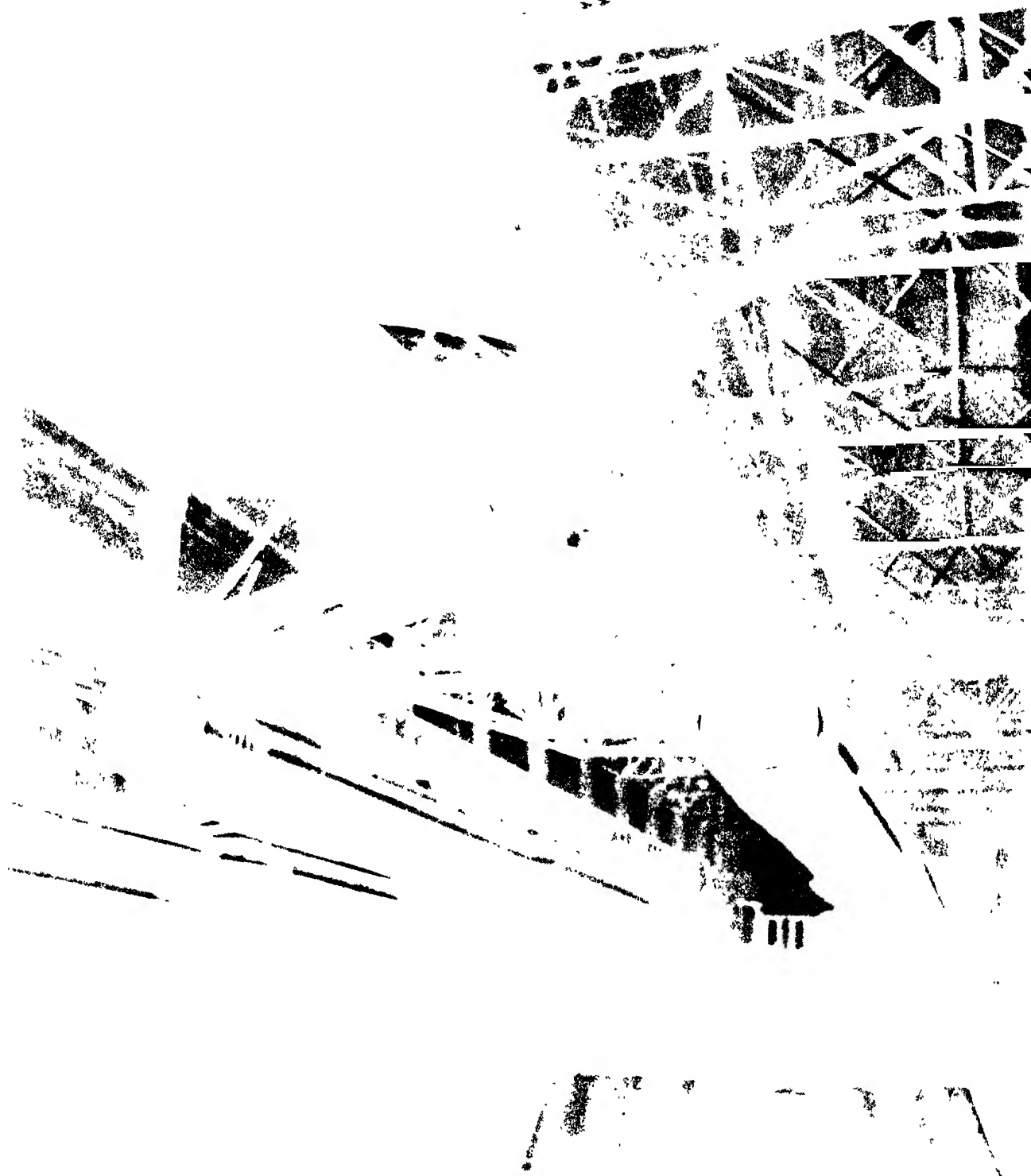
During the defence of Stalingrad, the Soviet artillery dealt crushing blows at the fascist hordes, and, on November 19, 1942, ushered in the historical offensive of the Soviet Army by an intense bombardment of the enemy's positions. That famous action ended in the encirclement and destruction of Field Marshal Paulus' army of 330,000 men.

Great as was the part it had played in defensive actions, Soviet artillery played a still more important role in offensive operations, when it destroyed countless enemy fortifications, engineering works and strongholds.

In the course of the war, the fire power of the Soviet artillery developed to an unprecedented scale. On the main spearhead sections there was an ordnance concentration of as many as 200 to 250 and more guns and mortars per kilometre of battle front.

The Soviet artillery won its crowning glory at the Battle of Berlin. During the drive against the last German strongpoints covering the approaches to Berlin, the Soviet artillery had as many as 610 guns and mortars concentrated on each kilometre of the front. Over 24,000 tons of metal were rained down on the enemy's head.

Hitler Germany surrendered on May 8, 1945, and three months later Soviet guns spoke up in the Far



ONE OF THE WORKSHOPS OF A URAL PLANT DURING THE WAR

Colonel-General of Technical Troops Vassili Grabin,
Hero of Socialist Labour, who (with his co-workers)
was awarded a Stalin Prize for designing a new type
of gun

East, where the Soviet Armies were delivering crushing blows at the Japanese imperialists.

The Soviet government gave due meed to the gallant services of Soviet artillerymen. Over 1,200,000 officers and men received government decorations, of whom 1,600 were awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

In commemoration of the distinguished services rendered by Soviet artillery, a special Artillery Day has been instituted in the Soviet Union to be held annually on November 19—the date on which the Soviet Army's historical counter-offensive at Stalingrad began.

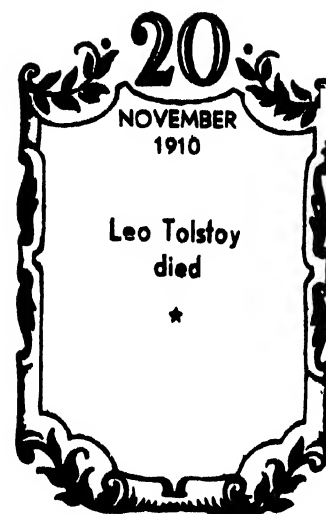
Soviet artillery owes its brilliant successes to the forethought and unflagging attention of Generalissimo of the Soviet Union Joseph Stalin. It grew during the war to five times its peacetime strength under his guidance.

The Soviet government in 1946 founded an Academy of Artillery Sciences wherein are gathered all the best in the Soviet world of science engaged on the various problems of artillery development.

Soviet artillerymen are working indefatigably to raise their proficiency in the interests of their country's growing power.



Oil painting by Nikolai Gue



LEO TOLSTOY

LEO TOLSTOY

(1828-1910)

LEO TOLSTOY was born in an aristocratic family at Yasnaya Polyana, a country-seat near Tula, in 1828.

At the age of sixteen he entered Kazan University, but, dissatisfied, left it after two years and in 1847 settled down in Yasnaya Polyana where, save for brief intervals, he spent his long life.

In 1851 Tolstoy went to the Caucasus with the Russian army and took part in the fighting there. The Caucasian period of his life marked the beginning of his literary career. His story *Childhood*, enthusiastically welcomed by the critics, appeared in the magazine *Sovremennik* (*The Contemporary*) in 1852. The great thinker and revolutionary democrat Nikolai Chernyshevsky noted in the young author's story "a profound knowledge of the secret movements of the psychic life" and "a directness and purity of the moral sense." This keen appreciation indicated the principal features of Tolstoy's talent, features which marked all his work for the rest of his life.

Tolstoy obtained an officer's commission in the Caucasus and later saw service with the Russian army on the Danube; he was transferred to the Crimea in 1854 and participated in the glorious defence of Sevastopol. *The Tales of Sevastopol* record the author's experiences in that war. He portrayed it, as he himself put it, "not as a splendid array of troops in beautiful formation, with music and the beating of drums, fluttering colours and generals on prancing steeds, but war in its true aspect—blood, suffering and death. . . ." The hero of *The Tales of Sevastopol* is the Russian people. In the characters of ordinary soldiers Tolstoy embodied the heroism, courage and love of country inherent in the masses of the people. In their literary style *The Tales of Sevastopol* are close to the war stories of the Caucasian period (*Raid*, *Felling of the Forest*), referring to which the critics of the time wrote that Leo Tolstoy "may be called the originator of that type of brilliant war sketch in which simplicity, naturalness and truth claim their full rights and which have entirely changed the literary style of this genre."

At the end of the war Tolstoy came to St. Petersburg where he was accepted as an equal into the circle of famous writers of the time (Nekrasov, Turgenev, Pisemsky, Chernyshevsky, Fet, and others).

In 1856 Tolstoy resigned his officer's commission and went abroad, visiting France, Switzerland, Italy and Germany. Upon his return he organized a school for peasant children in Yasnaya Polyana. During that period he wrote a number of educational articles for *Yasnaya Polyana*, a magazine devoted to problems of pedagogy, of which he was the editor.

In 1860 Tolstoy went abroad again. He attended lectures at the Berlin University, listened to Dickens' lectures on education in London, made Herzen's acquaintance, and met Proudhon in Brussels. Tolstoy returned to Russia in the year of the peasants' liberation from serfdom and devoted himself wholeheartedly to social activity.

Soon afterwards he married Sophia Behrs, the daughter of a physician.

In 1863 Tolstoy began work on his *War and Peace*, an epoch-making novel in world literature. He devoted to it more than six years, which according to his own words, were years of "incessant and exceptionally hard work under the best conditions of life." In *War and Peace*, the action of which is laid in the first quarter of the 19th century and ends with the victorious expulsion of the French from Russia in the Patriotic War of 1812, the writer unfolded a gigantic panorama of historical events in which the fates of nations and individuals were interwoven. The patriotic Russian people, who decided the outcome of the war, is shown as its hero.

It is the simple Russian people who are shown to possess the great moral qualities of a true patriot in common with the General, Mikhail Kutuzov, whose strength lay in his ability to give guidance to the spirit of the troops.

The full-blooded, life-asserting force with which the characters of *War and Peace* are imbued places this novel amongst the greatest humanistic works of art in the world.

Tolstoy's next novel, *Anna Karenina* (1873-77), dealt with two problems: family and society. The heroine of the novel risks an open break with society in the name of her love and dies, repudiated by the conventional morality of this society. Problems of science and philosophy, and socio-political questions of the epoch found their reflection in the novel. *Anna Karenina* was pronounced a masterpiece the moment it appeared.

Persistently posing before himself problems of the truth of life and human relations, Leo Tolstoy invariably solved them in his writings. In the beginning of the 'eighties this, in the expression of V. I. Lenin, "fervent protester, passionate accuser and great critic," having experienced a hard moral crisis, renounced in his *Confession* the social circle to which he belonged. He completely changed his personal life. With similar passion Tolstoy demanded that the social and political life of the country be reviewed and the existing system destroyed. He voiced his protest against oppression, addressing himself to the Russian emperors Alexander III and Nicholas II. Under tsarist censorship Tolstoy's journalistic writings could not be published in Russia; they were printed abroad and disseminated in Russia in numerous handwritten copies. The reactionary press described them as propaganda of "the most extreme, the most unbridled socialism."

The next novel, *Resurrection*, published in 1899, was a scathing indictment of the entire system of autocratic and police-ruled Russia. The tragic fate of a simple girl led astray is viewed in this novel as the inevitable result of the falsity of the society in which she lives. To the author the remedy against this evil lay not in the radical change of social relationships, but in the moral self-perfection of man. The church reacted to the publication of *Resurrection* by excommunicating Tolstoy.

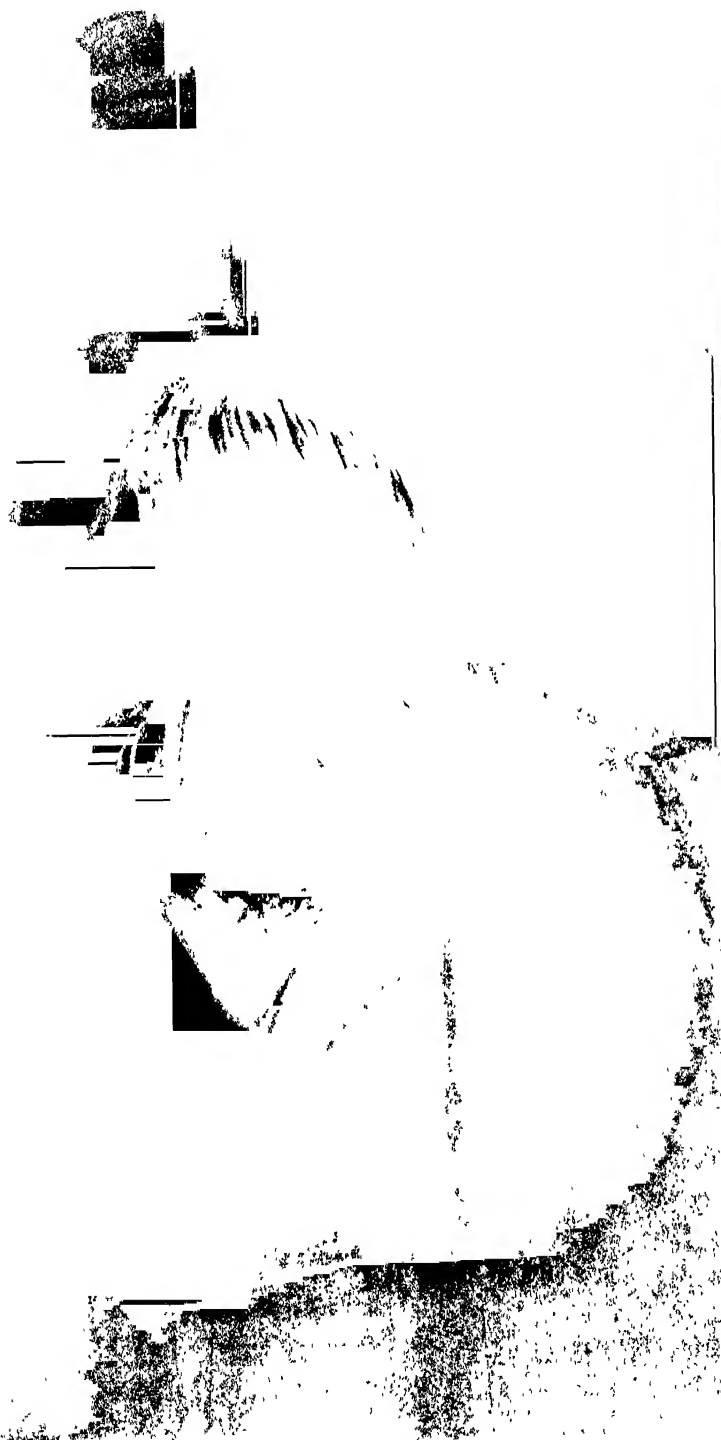
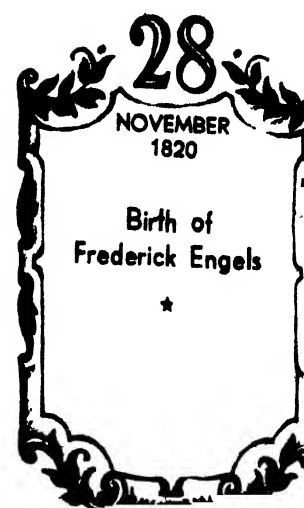
Tolstoy tried to solve moral problems in his plays too, as evidenced by *The Power of Darkness*, *The Living Corpse*, etc.

The older Tolstoy grew, the less tolerant he became of any compromise in the solution of the moral problems which disturbed him. And on November 10, 1910 the eighty-two-year-old man left Yasnaya Polyana, deciding to break forever with the falsehood of the life he hated.

At Astapovo Station on November 20, he caught a cold which developed into pneumonia, and died. On November 22 his body was interred at his native Yasnaya Polyana.

In his famous articles on Leo Tolstoy, Vladimir Lenin noted the "significance of Tolstoy's criticism of the state, the church and private landownership." At the same time Lenin revealed the contradictions in Tolstoy's writings. Tolstoy combined his merciless criticism of the autocratic police-ruled state and capitalist exploitation with the preaching of "non-resistance to evil" by violence and the preaching of moral self-protection. Analysing these contradictions, castigating the utopian and reactionary nature of Tolstoy's philosophy, Lenin wrote, however, that "in his legacy there is something that has not receded into the past, but belongs to the future," that Leo Tolstoy "was able to pose so many great problems in his works, was able to rise to such heights of artistic power, that his writings are among the greatest in world literature."

SALAR JUNG BAHAC



Sketch by N. Zhukov

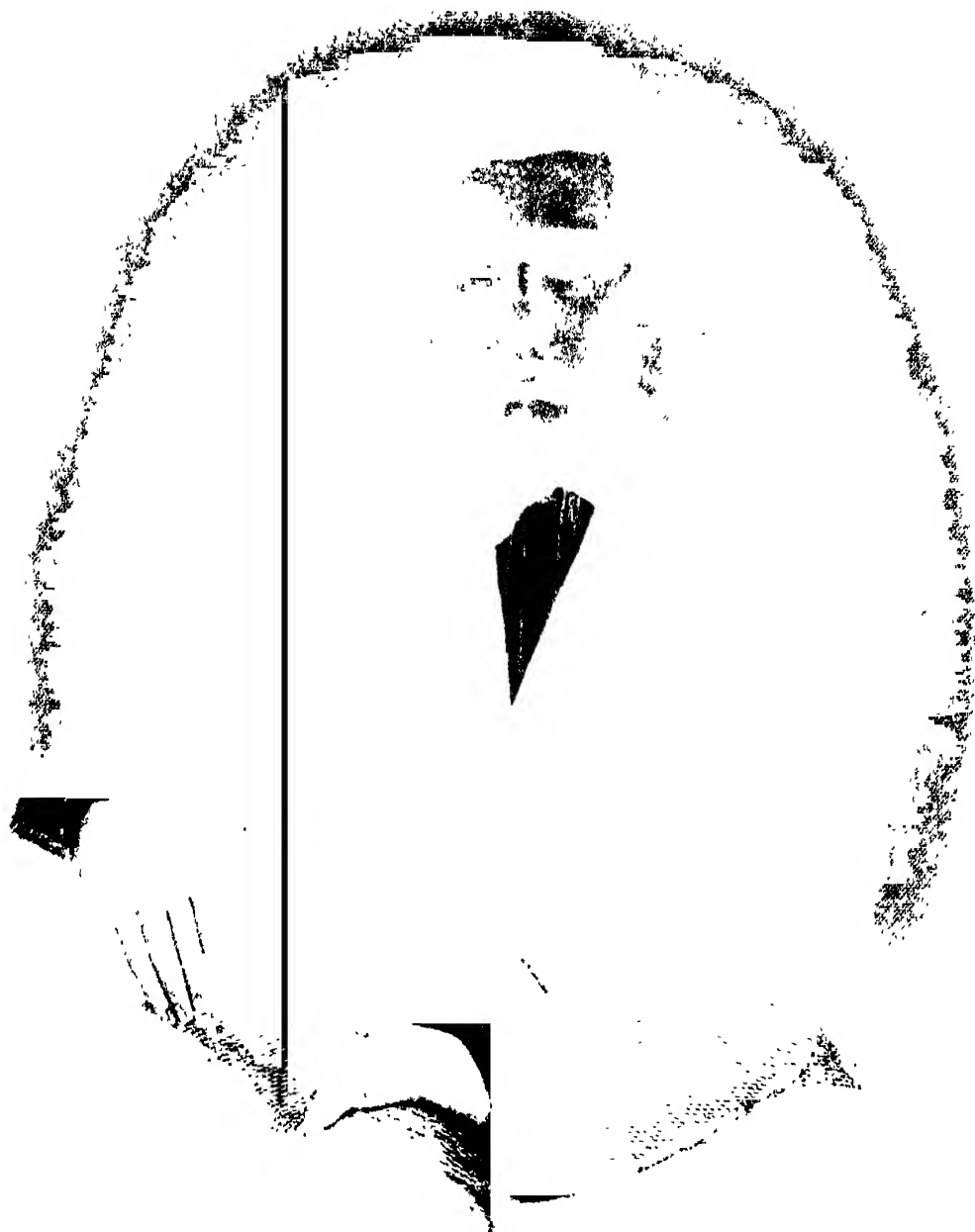
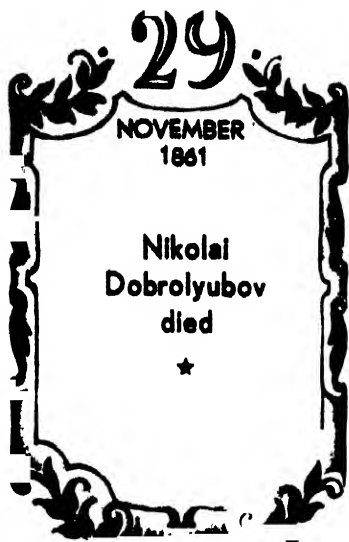
FREDERICK ENGELS

FREDERICK ENGELS

(1820-1895)

FREDERICK ENGELS, Marx's great collaborator, was one of the founders of scientific Communism, leader of the international working class and author of a number of extremely important works on political economy, philosophy and history. Jointly with Marx, he was the organizer and leader of the Communist League and of the First International. He was born in Barmen, Germany, on November 28, 1820. In 1842 he went to live in England, where he came in close contact with the English workers and with the leaders of the British working-class movement. In 1844 he met Marx in Paris, and there commenced that close friendship and collaboration in the struggle for the emancipation of the proletariat and for Communism; this friendship lasted until Marx's death. In 1845 Engels' remarkable work, *The Conditions of the Working Class in England*, appeared. In the beginning of 1848 that historic document *The Manifesto of the Communist Party*, the program of the Communist League that was written jointly by Marx and Engels, was published. With Marx, Engels took an active part in the revolution in Germany in 1848, and was one of the editors of the *Neue Rheinische Zeitung*. He took part in the armed insurrection in southwestern Germany in May 1849, and in October 1849, after the insurrection was suppressed, he emigrated to London. Subsequently, he went to Manchester and lived there until 1870, all the time maintaining constant communication with Marx who lived in London. Engels rendered his friend and collaborator self-sacrificing assistance during the time, when, amidst the hardships of life in emigration, Marx was hard at work on his great book *Capital*, the first volume of which appeared in 1867. Engels wrote a number of other important works in addition to *The Conditions of the Working Class*, such as *The Peasant War in Germany* (1850), *Revolution and Counter-Revolution in Germany* (1851-1852), *The Housing Question*

(1872), *Herr Eugen Dühring's Revolution in Science*, [Anti-Dühring] (1878), *The Dialectics of Nature* (1873-1883), *The Origin of the Family, Private Property and the State* (1884), *Ludwig Feuerbach and the Outcome of Classical German Philosophy* (1888), etc. As leaders of the First International, Marx and Engels ardently welcomed the Paris Commune as the first attempt at the dictatorship of the proletariat. On the basis of the experience of the Paris Commune Marx and Engels developed their theory of the state, the proletarian revolution and the dictatorship of the proletariat. Thanks to the leadership of Marx and Engels, scientific Communism triumphed over all forms of pre-Marxian Socialism; and in the seventies and eighties of the nineteenth century mass proletarian parties were formed in a number of advanced capitalist countries. Marx and Engels were the founders of dialectical materialism, the revolutionary world outlook of the working class. Engels was a great thinker and all-round scientist—philosopher, economist, historian, natural scientist, military expert, publicist, critic and linguist. He knew about twenty languages, including Russian. After Marx died he prepared and published the second and third volumes of *Capital*. While engaged on this work he continued to lead the international working-class movement and strongly combated opportunism in every form. Important documents in this struggle against opportunism were the *Critique of the Erfurt Program*, which he wrote in 1891 and the *Critique of the Gotha Program* which Marx wrote in 1875, and which Engels published in 1891. Engels died in London on August 5, 1895. The doctrines of Marx and Engels, the founders of scientific Communism, developed and raised to a higher stage by Lenin and Stalin, triumphed in the great Land of Soviets, where, under the leadership of the Bolshevik Party, Socialism—the first phase of Communism—has in the main been built.



“The distinguishing feature of virile, active patriotism is precisely the fact that it precludes all international enmity, and a man who is inspired by such patriotism is ready to work for the whole of mankind, if only he can be useful to it.... Real patriotism, being a specific manifestation of love for mankind, is incompatible with dislike for individual nations.”

N. Dobrolyubov

NIKOLAI DOBROLYUBOV

(1836-1861)

THE LIFE AND WORK of Nikolai Alexandrovich Dobrolyubov, great Russian critic, publicist and revolutionary democrat, are nothing short of astonishing. Though he lived only 25 years, he left a deep imprint in Russian literature and social thought. Karl Marx considered Dobrolyubov "an equal to Lessing and Diderot." In Lenin's estimation, Dobrolyubov was "a writer who passionately hated tyranny, and passionately anticipated the people's uprising against the 'Turks at home' i.e., against the autocratic government." These appraisals aptly define the role and significance of Dobrolyubov in the history of Russian culture.

Nikolai Dobrolyubov, born in Nizhni Novgorod (now Gorky) in the family of a poor priest, received his education in a clerical primary school and seminary. Upon graduating from the latter, he left for St. Petersburg, where he enrolled in the department of History and Philology of a Pedagogical Institute. He graduated with honours in 1857.

For a while Dobrolyubov cherished the thought of continuing his studies with the aim of entering upon an academic career; soon, however, he abandoned the idea. Chernyshevsky, who had at once appreciated the remarkable talent and the profound and versatile knowledge of the young man, invited him as permanent contributor to the *Sovremennik* (*The Contemporary*)—the finest democratic journal of that time. The *Sovremennik* became for Dobrolyubov the rostrum from which he passionately proclaimed his ideas of revolutionary democracy.

Dobrolyubov zealously studied the works of his great contemporaries—Alexander Herzen, Vissarion Belinsky and Nikolai Chernyshevsky. He also studied the works of Proudhon, Bruno, Robert Owen and Ludwig Feuerbach. The latter's theories of "pure science" and "pure art" he subjected to a thorough analysis and criticism; he dubbed Feuerbach's work "gastronomic," in that it was meant to serve as a spice for the mind, in contrast to humanitarian science and genuine art, which are intended to serve the people and lead them to a better life. Dobrolyubov emphatically denied that the Feuerbachian man, isolated from the social-historical milieu, could possibly exist; he rejected Feuerbach's passive contemplation, and condemned his endeavours to create a new religion based on the deification of human sentiments and passions, and his preaching of "all-human" morality.

Dobrolyubov's materialism, as distinguished from that of Ludwig Feuerbach, was effective and active; it lived in close union with revolutionary practice,—and it is this that gave Dobrolyubov prominence as a philosopher and thinker.

Dobrolyubov saw a great liberating force in literature, a force capable of imbuing progressive people with the will to change reality. He deemed it necessary to disperse the fog of idealistic illusions and bravely face reality. "It is time," he wrote, "for us to release life from the heavy tutelage forced upon it by the ideologists. Beginning with Plato, they rebel against realism, and before understanding it properly, confuse its meaning. They must have dualism by all means, they want to divide the world into the *noumena* and *phenomena*, asserting that only pure ideas have actual reality, and that all phenomena, i.e., all that is visible, are only a reflection of these higher ideas. It is time to do away with such Platonic dreaming and understand that bread is not an empty sign, a reflection of a higher, abstract idea of vital force, but just bread—an object which can be eaten."

Developing his idea further, Dobrolyubov asserted that it is not life that is fashioned from literature, but literature

from life. Literature must reflect the vital truth; this does not mean, however, that the artist need necessarily be a disinterested naturalist who blindly copies reality, and does not know how to give expression to the essence of reality.

Dobrolyubov's ideas are vividly expounded in the following four works: *What is Oblomovshchina?*, *The Realm of Darkness*, *A Ray of Light in the Realm of Darkness*, and *When Will the Day Come?*

In his article *What is Oblomovshchina?*—an analysis of Ivan Goncharov's novel *Oblomov*—Dobrolyubov subjected the ideology of the liberal gentry to withering criticism. Like the hero of the novel, the lazy and eternally drowsy landowner Oblomov, they lived an idle, fruitless life, covering up their inactivity and inability to wage a revolutionary struggle with "loud perorations." Dobrolyubov contrasts the inactive, dreamy Oblomov with the new generation of commoners who were revolutionary democrats.

Alexander Ostrovsky's plays treating of the life of the Russian merchants provided the subject-matter for Dobrolyubov's essays on the "realm of darkness." In describing the dullness, perverseness and barbarism characteristic of the Russian merchant class, and of their senseless cruelty with regard to all who were materially dependent on them, Dobrolyubov painted a staggering picture of the "realm of darkness," of tsarist Russia in the period of serfdom, the "foul dungeon," "world of dull pain, world of prison-like, grave-like silence." Katerina, the heroine of the drama *Storm*, who, unable to endure the oppression of the "realm of darkness," drowned herself in the Volga, was treated by Dobrolyubov as an individual protesting against oppression and tyranny. Her protest was passive, but it showed that the downtrodden masses were awakening to the realization of their "natural" rights, that the time of humble submissiveness was passing. This was why the great thinker and critic called Katerina a "ray of light in the realm of darkness."

In his article *When Will the Day Come?* in which he analysed Turgenev's novel *On the Eve*, Dobrolyubov gave a revolutionary interpretation of the hero of the novel, the Bulgarian Insarov. The aim of Insarov's life was to liberate his country from the Turkish yoke. This thought was the leitmotif of his whole life, the substance of his work and strivings. Tsarist censorship forced Dobrolyubov to speak of Bulgaria, but it was clear to the reader that he was speaking of Russia, that Russia needed her own Insarovs who would free her from "her own Turks," the landowners, officials and exploiters of all kinds. "The real day" is the day of the downfall of the feudal autocratic regime.

Dobrolyubov the democrat, who passionately hated this regime with its official, landowner-bourgeois patriotism, with its "desire to slash and beat others," loved his people dearly. He opposed to the hypocritical patriotism of the ruling classes democratic patriotism. "The distinguishing feature of virile, active patriotism," wrote Dobrolyubov, "is precisely the fact that it precludes all international enmity, and a man, who is inspired by such patriotism, is ready to work for the whole of mankind. . . ."

Stricken by tuberculosis, Nikolai Dobrolyubov died at the age of 25. Despite his short life, he left a valuable literary legacy. Russia's revolutionary democrats of the second half of the 19th century were brought up on his writings, and on those of Herzen, Belinsky, and Chernyshevsky. As a true humanist and patriot, Nikolai Dobrolyubov, champion of truth and progress in social life and literature, is dear to the Soviet people to this day.



***The Arms
of the Armenian Soviet Socialist
Republic***

ARMENIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE ARMENIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC, situated in the southern part of central Transcaucasia, occupies an area of 31,000 square kilometres. It has a population of 1,300,000 (1939 census), 85 per cent of whom are Armenians, the rest Russians, Kurds, and Azerbaijanians. It borders on Iran and Turkey.

The Armenian Soviet Republic comprises only a part of ancient Armenian soil; the other part is still under Turkish rule. Hundreds of thousands of Armenians are scattered throughout the world.

Located as it is on trade routes between the East and West, Armenia has for centuries been an object of encroachment by belligerent neighbours.

In the beginning of the 19th century, part of Armenia was incorporated into the Russian State. This saved the Armenian people from the physical extinction which threatened it under Turkish domination.

Armenia experienced hard times in 1918-20 when Soviet Russia was in the throes of the Civil War and foreign intervention. Power in Armenia was seized by the Dashnaks, bourgeois nationalists, the flunkys of the Russian Whiteguards and foreign interventionists, who prosecuted a policy of bloody terror, who reduced the economy of Armenia to a state of utter chaos and brought the Armenian people to the brink of physical extinction. Suffice it to say that in 1919, the birth-rate in Armenia was 8.7 per thousand while the death-rate, due primarily to poverty and starvation, was 204.2 per thousand.

As a result of the revolutionary uprising of the Armenian workers and peasants in November 1920, the Dashnaks were overthrown and a Soviet regime was established in Armenia.

At that time Joseph Stalin wrote: "Armenia, tormented and harassed, Armenia, by the grace of the Entente and the Dashnaks delivered to starvation, ruin and homelessness, this Armenia, deceived by all her 'friends,' has found her deliverance in declaring herself a Soviet land. . . . Only the idea of Soviet power has brought peace to Armenia and offered her a possibility for national revival."

The Armenian S.S.R. was a member of the Transcaucasian Federation until December 5, 1936, when it became a constituent republic of the U.S.S.R.

The industry, agriculture and culture of Armenia have changed beyond recognition since the inception of Soviet power.

In 1945, the gross output of the national economy of Armenia increased sixfold in comparison with 1913; that of industry registering a twentyfold increase. Industry accounted for 80.8 per cent, and agriculture for 19.2 per cent of the republic's gross production. From a backward agrarian country with hardly any industry Armenia has become an advanced industrial-agrarian Socialist republic.

One hundred and twenty industrial enterprises, including the Alaverdy and Kafan Copper Works, the Machine-Tool Plant in Erevan, the Leninakan Textile Mill, food-manufacturing plants, the Kirovakan and Alaverdy Fertilizer Plants, were built in Armenia during the period covered by the Stalin Five-Year Plans. The Kanakir Electric Power Station, the hydroelectric power station on the Dzora River and dozens of collective-farm power stations have been constructed. In 1945, the output of electric power was 80 times that of 1913, and amounted to 700,000,000 kilowatt-hours.

Production of building materials—such as cement, pumice, gypsum, marble and tuff, has been widely developed in Armenia. Tuff has even become an article of export. Steady growth has been registered in the food industry—meat, canning, dairy, oil-pressing, viticulture, etc., embracing over 30 branches of the industry turning out nearly 400 different products.

Great progress has been achieved in Armenian agriculture thanks to the organization of large collective farms equipped with up-to-date machinery. The acreage under crops in the republic grew from 82,000 hectares in 1919 to 461,000 hectares in 1945. The crop yield per hectare has doubled and the area of vineyards trebled.

In 1913, Armenia's orchards covered 4,400 hectares, whereas in 1940, they extended over more than 16,000 hectares. More than 5,000 hectares of new orchards and 3,000 hectares of vineyards were planted during the period 1940-45.

Two hundred and fifty million rubles have been invested in irrigation since the inception of Soviet power. Ninety canals with a total length of 7,000 kilometres have been built, bringing the irrigated area up to 198,500 hectares.

The collective farms of Armenia have made great progress in livestock-breeding. In 1945 the cattle herd was double that of 1913.

In the realm of culture too the Armenian people have achieved great progress. Before the revolution there were 446 elementary and seven secondary schools in Armenia; today there are 869 elementary and 300 secondary schools, 48 technical schools and 13 schools of higher learning with an enrolment of 10,000 students. The Academy of Sciences of the Armenian S.S.R. co-ordinates the work of 45 scientific-research institutes and other scientific institutions. Armenian scientists have made valuable contributions to the development of advanced Soviet science. Armenia's poets, writers, composers and artists have produced outstanding works of literature and art. During the period 1937-46 the publishing houses of Armenia put out a great many books with a total of 27,800,000 copies.

Thousands of Armenians fought in the ranks of the Soviet Army during the Great Patriotic War. The 89th Taman Infantry Division of Armenians wrote a brilliant page into the history of the Great Patriotic War by fighting its way from Grozny to Berlin. More than 42,000 Armenian men and officers were decorated with Orders and Medals, and 96 of them were awarded the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

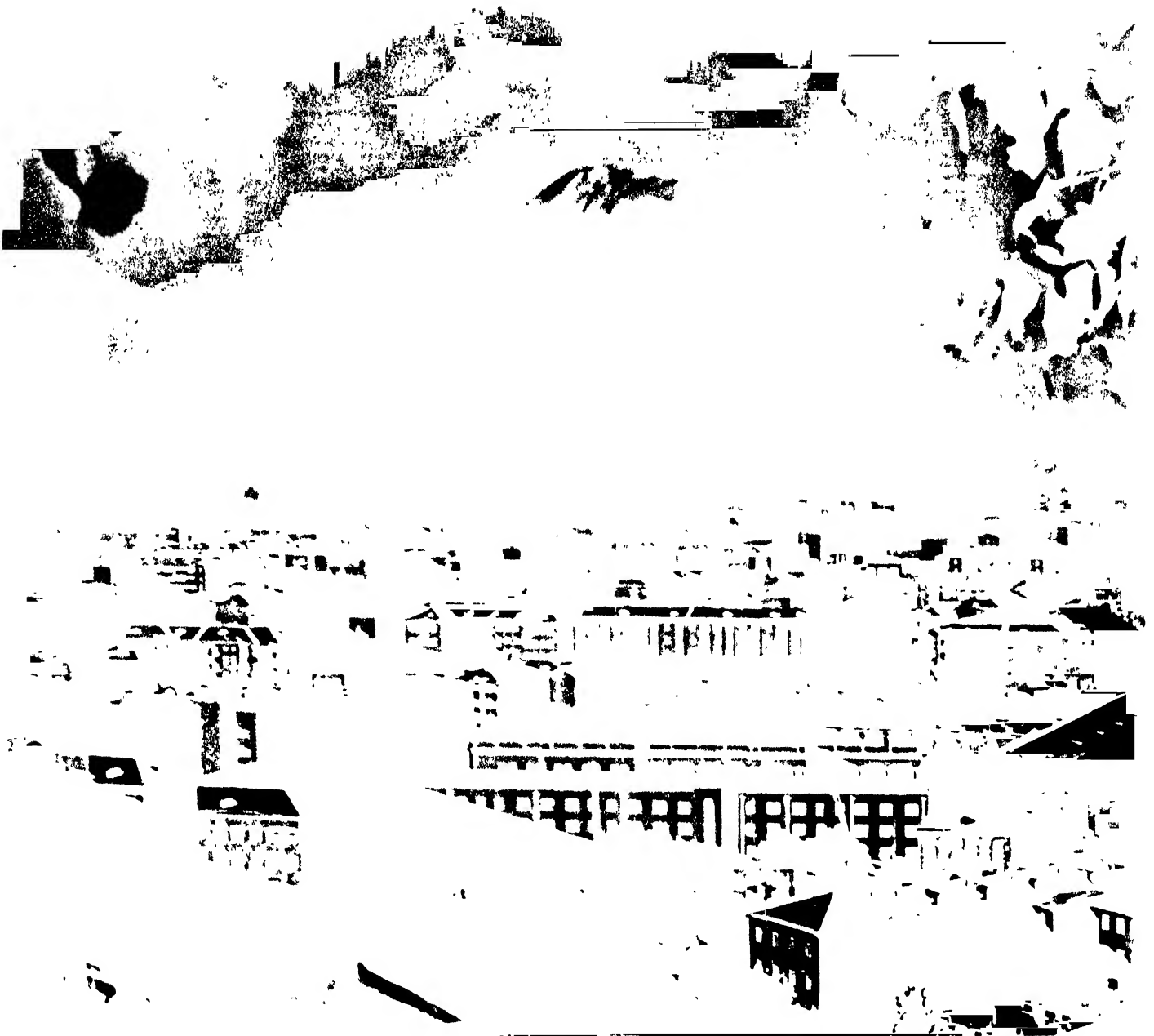
The Five-Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy (1946-50) ensures the further economic and cultural progress of the Armenian people.

Up to 1,420,000,000 rubles will be invested in the national economy of the Armenian S.S.R. under the plan, which is six times as much as was invested under the first Five-Year Plan (1928-32). New enterprises of the electrical, textile and food industries will be built. By 1950, the output of electric power in the republic is scheduled to reach 860,000,000 kilowatt-hours, as against the 700,000,000 kilowatt-hours in 1945; the production of cement—120,000 tons, of cotton fabrics—44,800,000 metres and—2,600,000 metres of silk fabrics. Total industrial production is planned to increase by 110 per cent.

The agriculture of the republic will make great headway. The acreage under crop is planned to reach 512,000 hectares in 1950. The Stalin, Nork, Lower-Zanga and Garnin irrigation canals will be opened, adding 23,500 hectares to the irrigated land. Industrial crops—cotton and sugar beet—are to be further developed. The number of cattle, including fine-fleeced sheep, will be considerably increased.

The new Five-Year Plan provides for the building of new dwelling houses in the cities, allowing for an increase of floor space by 284,000 square metres, and for further improvement of the municipal services and public utilities in Erevan, the capital, and in other towns of the republic. The plan ensures the further growth of Armenian culture, science and art.

The numerous foreign delegations that have visited Soviet Armenia since the end of the war were unanimous in their opinion that the Armenian people, after many centuries of suffering, have at last found a happy homeland. Hundreds of thousands of Armenians, scattered the world over, are striving to return home. Fifty thousand of them have already come back to their Soviet homeland from Iran, Iraq, Lybia and other countries. They were given a hearty welcome, provided with land and work and are now actively participating in socialist construction. The numerous Armenian colonies in America and other countries voice their demand ever more insistently that the historic wrong be redressed and the ancient Armenian lands, wrested from Armenia, be rejoined to strong and happy Soviet Armenia.



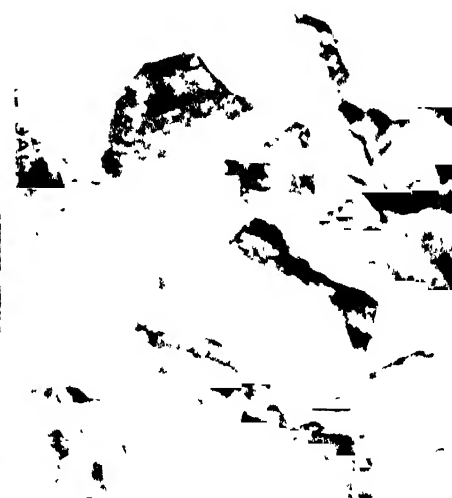
EREVAN, CAPITAL OF THE ARMENIAN S.S.R.



Cultivating grapes on the Ararat Wine
Trust plantations



Right: The Synthetic Rubber Works in Erevan



Avetis Tilbian, back in his native land from
Beiruth, is now a member of a collective
fishery at Lake Sevan, 1946

PEOPLE'S ARTIST
OF THE ARME-
NIAN S.S.R. MAR-
TIROS SARYAN IN
HIS STUDIO



Scene from the opera
Almast. Production of
the State Opera and
Ballet of the Armenian
S.S.R., Erevan

Thirty-seven years ago S. E. Manaserian proposed that the waters of Lake Sevan be utilized for the generation of electricity and the irrigation of the arid regions of the Ararat Valley. It was only after the advent of Soviet power that this proposal was carried out. Manaserian is now doing valuable work at the Water Power Institute of the Academy of Sciences of the Armenian S.S.R.

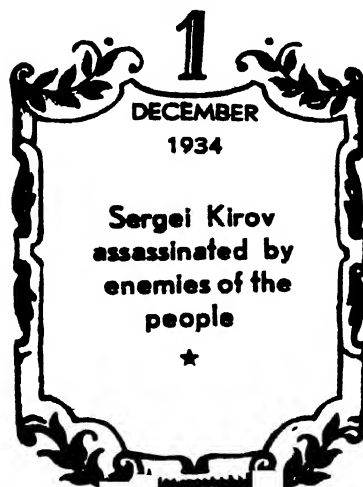


DECEMBER

- DECEMBER 1, 1934** *Sergei Kirov, one of the outstanding leaders of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet state, assassinated by the enemies of the people.*
- DECEMBER 5** *Stalin Constitution Day—a national holiday. On December 5, 1936 the Extraordinary Eighth Congress of Soviets adopted the new Constitution of the U.S.S.R.*
- DECEMBER 6, 1941** *Units of the Soviet Army launched a counter-offensive on the Western Front. Beginning of the rout of the Hitlerite army near Moscow.*
- DECEMBER 10, 1944** *Treaty of Alliance and Mutual assistance between U.S.S.R. and French Republic signed.*
- DECEMBER 12, 1943** *Treaty of Friendship, Mutual assistance and Post-War Collaboration between U.S.S.R. and Czechoslovak Republic concluded.*
- DECEMBER 15, 1938** *Valeri Chkalov, famous Soviet flyer, killed.*
- DECEMBER 21, 1879** *Birth of Joseph Vissarionovich Stalin.*
- DECEMBER 25, 1917** *Soviet Power proclaimed in the Ukraine.*
- DECEMBER 30, 1947** *25th anniversary of the foundation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.*

NAWAH SALAR UN BAH

SERGEI KIROV



SERGEI KIROV

(1886-1934)

SERGEI MIRONOVICH KIROV was a native of Urzhum, a small town in the north of Russia. Born in 1886, Kirov early lost his parents and was brought up in an orphan asylum. After finishing elementary school and subsequently technical school in Kazan, he went to live in Tomsk. Early in his teens he had struck up a friendship with exiled revolutionaries, and on his arrival in Tomsk, in 1904, he joined the Bolshevik Party and took an active part in the 1905 Revolution. A brilliant organizer and propagandist, he already at that time enjoyed great popularity among the railway workers of the city.

Time and again he was arrested and exiled for his revolutionary activity, but even when incarcerated he took advantage of every opportunity, however slight, to spread the idea of struggle against oppression. He conducted workers' circles in the common prison cell, studying with them the writings of Lenin. His untiring energy and iron will imbued his cellmates with firm belief in the victory of the revolution.

In 1908, when his term of exile was up, Kirov went to Vladikavkaz, in the North Caucasus. Here he worked in the editorial office of the local newspaper *Terek*.

In the North Caucasus Kirov conducted revolutionary propaganda among the numerous nationalities for the idea of international solidarity. In 1917, he fought enthusiastically for the victory of the October Revolution and was elected by the working people of Vladikavkaz to represent them at the Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets. At its session he heard Lenin's inspiring speech proclaiming the establishment of Soviet power throughout the land of Russia. Kirov took a direct part in the fighting in Petrograd in October. On his return to Vladikavkaz, he, now at the head of the Bolsheviks in the North Caucasus, organized the workers, mountaineers and Cossacks to combat the counter-revolution.

In 1918-19 we find him leading the heroic defence of Astrakhan. Here this fiery tribune of the people, this ardent Bolshevik who knew how to rouse the working people's enthusiasm both in work and in struggle, found ample opportunity to display his remarkable talent for military leadership and the organization of the masses. In one of his inspiring addresses to the defenders of Astrakhan, he said: "As long as there is one Communist left in the region of Astrakhan the mouth of the Volga is and will be Soviet." And he kept his pledge. Astrakhan was saved from the Whiteguard hordes.

In 1920, Kirov, assisted by Orjonikidze and Mikoyan, two other prominent revolutionaries, freed the North Caucasus and Azerbaijan from the forces of counter-revolution and intervention, and restored the Soviet power in these parts.

In July 1921, Kirov took over the leadership of the Baku Bolshevik organization. There he gave his undivided attention to the work of restoring the Baku oil fields which had been devastated by the war, and of effecting their technical reconstruction.

The land of Soviets embarked upon a new stage in the course of its development. In December 1925, at the Fourteenth Congress of the Bolshevik Party, Stalin set the following task:

"The conversion of our country from an agrarian into an industrial country able to produce the machinery it needs by its own efforts—that is the essence, the basis of our general line."

The Party sent Kirov to Leningrad to work in this great centre of the machine-building industry. And month after month, year after year, under the direct leadership of Sergei Kirov, hundreds of new factories and mills were built or reconstructed in the city and region of Leningrad. Engineering and the manufacture of chemicals assumed tremendous proportions, and new electric power stations began to spring up.

The development of the North, one of the remarkable achievements of the Stalin Five-Year Plans, owes much to Sergei Kirov. Due to his initiative and guidance, the Soviet North has witnessed the rise of large-scale industrial establishments and of new towns and settlements.

Kirov gave unflagging attention to the building of the White Sea-Baltic Canal, an engineering work of vast economic and strategic importance.

A member of the Political Bureau and a Secretary of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U.(B.), Kirov played his part in shaping the domestic and foreign policies of the country. He was greatly interested in the problems of science, art and culture. He was filled with a deep love for life, and had great expectations of what the new life which he helped to build would bring to his beloved country. He would often call upon scientists, workers, engineers and technicians "to shake up this old world of ours."

Speaking from the tribune of the 17th Party Congress, in 1934, he said: "Immense, indeed, are the successes we have achieved. To put it in plain human language, 'one would like to live on and on.'"

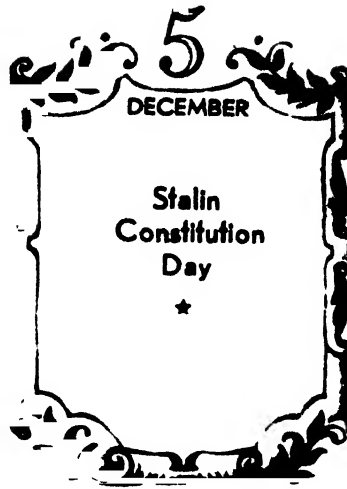
Sergei Kirov's life was cut short on December 1, 1934, by a Trotskyite bandit and fascist agent.

The fine example set by Kirov throughout his life served as an inspiration to many Soviet soldiers in the grim days of the war. Sergei Kirov, the great citizen, was an inspiration to the heroic defenders of Leningrad on whose behalf he worked so hard during his lifetime.

MAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR



J. V. STALIN



THE STALIN CONSTITUTION, A CONSTITUTION OF SOCIALIST SOCIETY

ON DECEMBER 5, 1936, the Eighth Extraordinary Congress of Soviets adopted the new Constitution of the U.S.S.R., the draft of which was introduced by Joseph Stalin on behalf of the Constitution Commission. The new Constitution reflects the changes and the progress that had been brought about in the economic and political life of the country between 1924 and 1936. It is the victory of Socialism in the U.S.S.R. given legislative embodiment. The economic foundation of the U.S.S.R. is the socialist system of economy and the socialist ownership of the instruments and means of production.

The Constitution of the U.S.S.R. is a classical document setting forth in simple and concise language the historic victory of Socialism in the U.S.S.R., the liberation of the working people from capitalist slavery, the abolition of private ownership of the instruments and means of production.

The Constitution records that the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is a socialist state of workers and peasants, in which all power belongs to the working people of town and country as represented by the Soviets of Working People's Deputies. The Soviet state is a new type of state. Its structure is in accordance with the new social relations existing between the people, relations based on an absence of exploitation of man by man, on fraternal friendship

among the peoples. In Soviet society there is genuine equality of all working people irrespective of race or nationality, sex, religion, property status and social origin.

At the time when the Constitution was adopted the U.S.S.R. already had a powerful industry, capable of meeting all the demands of the national economy, and a large-scale mechanized socialist agriculture based on collective farms and state farms, and equipped with modern machinery.

As a result of the victory of Socialism in the Soviet Union the class structure of Soviet society underwent a change. The working class is an entirely new working class, a working class emancipated from exploitation, the like of which the history of mankind has never before known. And, similarly, the Soviet peasantry has become a collective-farm peasantry whose work is based on collective labour and social, collective-farm property. A new intelligentsia bound up by its very roots with the working class and the peasantry and serving the interests of the people, has sprung up.

The victory of Socialism and the realization of genuine democracy in the political, economic, and cultural life of the people made the Soviet system the most stable and powerful political system in the world.

The consistency of Soviet democracy is clearly expressed in the equality and friendship of the peoples of the U.S.S.R. They all enjoy equal rights in the political, economic, cultural and public life of the country, which ensures the economic advancement of the Union and Autonomous Republics and raises the level of culture of all Soviet peoples, a culture national in form and socialist in content. Mutual distrust has vanished in the relations between the peoples of the U.S.S.R. and has been replaced by ever growing friendship and fraternal collaboration.

These historic achievements, won by the working class under the leadership of the Communist Party, are recorded in this great document of our era, very appropriately named the Stalin Constitution after its author and inspirer.

The Soviet Constitution sets forth the manifold rights and duties of the citizens of the socialist state.

In no capitalist country do the working people have such rights as are possessed by the citizens of the U.S.S.R. Everywhere else distinctions are drawn between the rights of the possessing and the non-possessing classes, and restrictions of every kind are imposed upon the majority as the logical outcome of the nature of bourgeois, capitalist society.

In the Soviet Union the working people can freely exercise their rights and build up Soviet society on the foundation of true democracy.

The position each occupies in Soviet society is determined by his personal labour contribution, by his talents, and not by the private property he may own, by the wealth he has acquired or the class into which he was born. In Soviet society people work for themselves, for their state, and the more productively a person works, the greater the respect and esteem he is accorded.

Can there be any serious talk of equality, freedom or democracy for workers, for the common people, under capitalism, with the spectre or the reality of unemployment constantly stalking the land, when the worker is unable to provide the necessities of life for himself and his family, when economic crises and unemployment make the worker apprehensive of the morrow?

The people of the Soviet Union know neither crises nor unemployment. In the U.S.S.R. work is a duty

incumbent upon every citizen, is a matter of honour, valour and heroism. "He who does not work, neither shall he eat"; "from each according to his ability, to each according to his work"—such are the principles of Socialism applied in the U.S.S.R. In the U.S.S.R. the right to work has not only been proclaimed but is guaranteed by the whole socialist organization of the national economy.

The right to rest and leisure and to maintenance in old age and also in case of sickness or disability is made real by extensive social insurance, defrayed not by deducting percentages from wages or salaries, as is the case in most capitalist countries, but out of state funds. The working people receive annual vacations with full pay, free medical aid whenever necessary, and they have at their disposal a ramified network of health resorts, rest homes, clubs, libraries, stadiums and other amenities.

The right to education inscribed in the Constitution is ensured by universal and compulsory elementary education free of charge. In the higher schools the students who excel in their studies receive state stipends, while workers in industrial establishments are given free vocational and technical training, which enables them to improve their skill and consequently their material conditions.

Freedom of speech and of the press as well as freedom of assembly, including the right to hold mass meetings, is ensured by placing at the disposal of the working people all the facilities needed for the exercise of these liberties: public buildings, printing presses, stocks of paper, communication facilities and other such requisites.

Women in the U.S.S.R. have the same rights as men in all fields of activity: economic, political, cultural, social, public. They work in factory and farm, in state offices and scientific institutions on an equal footing with men, receiving equal pay for equal work. They also enjoy the same rights as men with regard to rest and leisure, social insurance, vocational and technical training. Mother and child are the object of special state care.

In the past the working people dreamed of establishing a socialist society, a society in which they could work freely, develop their culture and so organize society that it would not serve as a source of enrich-

ment of the exploiting classes. Progressive-minded people expended much effort and made enormous sacrifices in attempts to realize these great aims, but their struggles usually ended in one group or class of exploiters being superseded by another group or class of exploiters. Only in the land of the Soviets has an entirely new system of society, a socialist system, been set up and has the most democratic of Constitutions.

Since the adoption of the new Constitution great changes have occurred in all branches of the national economy. The socialist system of economy has made it possible to build thousands of new, first-class industrial establishments and to reconstruct and modernize old enterprises. The U.S.S.R. has become a powerful industrial country. In rate of growth of industrial output the Soviet Union in the period preceding the war overtook and surpassed the principal capitalist countries.

The Soviet socialist system of agriculture, operated on a larger scale than anywhere else in the world, was equipped with modern machinery and has proved able to meet the country's increasing demand for agricultural products.

The upgrade movement in industry and agriculture in the U.S.S.R. brought with it an improvement in the standard of life of the working people and a development of the cultures of the Soviet peoples.

It was in the midst of this period, when the Soviet people were imbued with the sole desire to carry out the task set by the Communist Party in the Third Stalin Five-Year Plan—to outstrip the principal capitalist countries economically—that Hitler Germany made its perfidious attack on the Soviet Union and interrupted the Soviet people's peaceful construction of Socialism. The whole national economy and all the forces of the Soviet people were harnessed to the defence of the motherland against the dangerous and cunning fascist foe.

The enemy incursion into Soviet soil was accompanied by wholesale destruction in the occupied areas. The Nazis made havoc of the industrial establishments, the collective farms, the schools and hospitals; the cattle was driven off and industrial equipment shipped out of the country. But throughout the war production continued to grow and new

factories were built in the Urals, Siberia and Central Asia. The front required armaments, food and machinery. In the words of Stalin "...the war was something in the nature of an examination of our Soviet system, of our state, of our government and of our Communist Party."

Soviet society successfully stood every wartime test, however severe, and, thanks to the wise leadership of Joseph Stalin, the founder and leader of the great Soviet Army, emerged victorious from this war.

In order that normal conditions of life might be restored as quickly as possible, rehabilitation of war-swept areas was inaugurated with extraordinary energy. Immediately upon the termination of the war the land of Soviets was set the task of rapidly restoring the pre-war levels of industry and agriculture and, that attained, to considerably raise these levels.

In his speech of February 9, 1946, Joseph Stalin, addressing an election meeting in the Stalin Election District of the city of Moscow, indicated the direction the development of the national economy must take. This outline given by the great leader has been embodied in the law on the Five-Year Plan for the Restoration and Development of the National Economy of the U.S.S.R. for 1946-50.

This is indeed a grand plan. Its fulfilment will raise Soviet society to a new high level of achievement. This Stalin Plan is a powerful political, moral and cultural force in our society.

The Constitution of the U.S.S.R. records not only rights but also duties. Every citizen of the U.S.S.R. is obliged to abide by the Constitution and observe the laws, to work honestly and conscientiously, respect the rules of socialist intercourse, safeguard and fortify socialist property as the sacred and inviolable foundation of the Soviet system, as the source of the prosperity and culture of the working people.

Led by the Party of Lenin and Stalin and inspired by the Five-Year Plan for the Rehabilitation and Development of the National Economy, the Soviet people have developed a system of socialist emulation in the factories and fields, in the transport system and government offices, a system expressive of the great moral strength of the Soviet people.

The importance of socialist emulation has been brought home to every section of the population, and

now all over the land workers, collective farmers and intellectuals are taking part in this system of socialist competition to achieve above-schedule fulfilment of plans, reduction of costs and improvement of quality of output.

There is a tremendous enthusiasm amongst the Soviet people to fulfill and overfulfill plans: in order to achieve better results they maintain labour discipline consciously and voluntarily, productivity of labour is increased and great efforts are made to economize in the expenditure of raw materials, fuel and electricity.

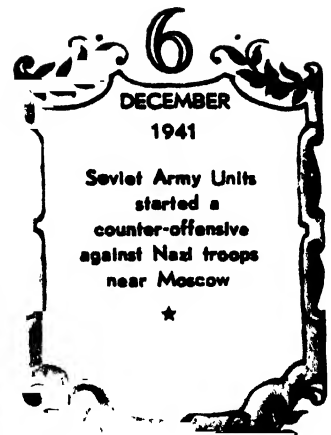
This creative activity and display of initiative on the part of the millions of producers is one of the most important and characteristic features of Soviet democracy. "... the Soviets," wrote J. Stalin, "are the *immediate* organizations of the masses themselves, *i. e.*, they are *the most democratic* and therefore the most authoritative organizations of the masses, which facilitate to the utmost their participation in the work of building up the new state and in its administration..." Millions of Soviet citizens take part in the administration of the state through their representatives, the members of the Soviet of Working People's Deputies, which, according to the Constitution, form the political foundation of the

U.S.S.R. This clearly proves the really popular character of Soviet power, of Soviet democracy.

At the elections to the Supreme Soviets of the Union and Autonomous Soviet Republics, held on February 9 and 16, 1947, the Soviet people once more demonstrated the greatness of genuine democracy by choosing the country's best sons and daughters, wholeheartedly devoted to their motherland and fully capable of carrying out the will of the people.

In these, as in all preceding elections, the principles of democracy were observed fully and consistently. Elections were universal, equal, direct and secret, as provided by the Constitution. Almost the entire adult population of the country (from 18 years up) went to the polls. No other country in the world has ever achieved such high attendance at the polls.

This universal and all round activity of the people of the Soviet Union is the result of the consistent application of the principles of the Soviet Constitution which not only proclaims the rights of its citizens, but guarantees them the possibility of exercising them. The peoples of the Soviet Union are proud of their Constitution, a constitution of socialist society. With joy and enthusiasm they mark Stalin Constitution Day on the fifth of every December. It is a day of festivity for the entire Soviet people, the builders of Communist society.

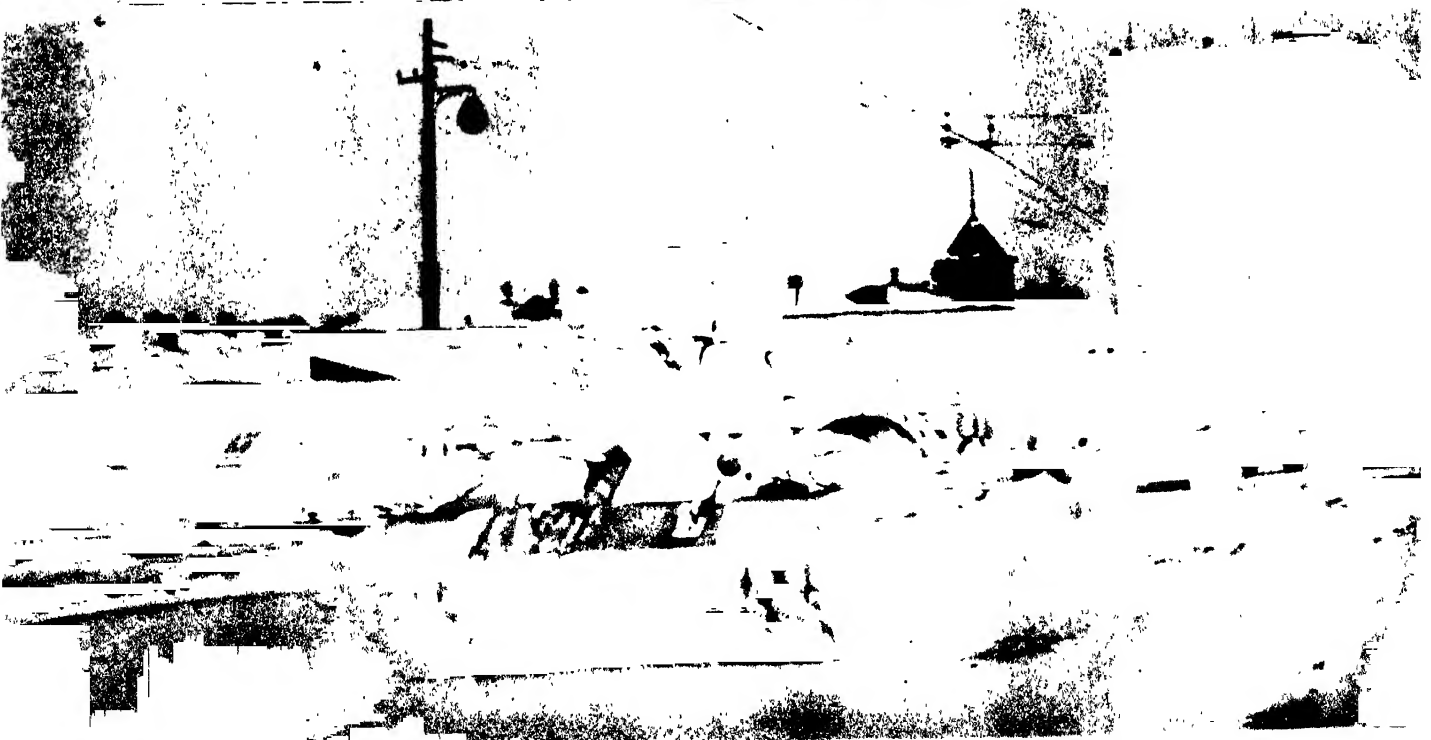


Soviet Army Units
started a
counter-offensive
against Nazi troops
near Moscow



SOLDIERS OF THE SOVIET
ARMY LEAVING FOR THE
FRONT AFTER THE PARADE ON
RED SQUARE, NOVEMBER 7,
1941

SOME OF THE TANKS WHICH
PARTICIPATED IN THE PARADE
ON THEIR WAY TO THE FRONT



A HISTORIC BATTLE

THE BATTLE OF MOSCOW ranked among the most brilliant operations of the Soviet Army in the last war. It demonstrated the might of the Soviet state and the ability of the Soviet people to stand up against the fascist assault and bring about the defeat of the invader.

Twice Hitler attempted to capture the Soviet capital in the early period of the war. The first attack was launched on October 2, 1941, by the German Central army group. Enormous numerical superiority enabled the Germans to make a good deal of headway before they were checked by the Soviet Army. Fighting to the last ditch in every action, the Soviet troops inflicted heavy losses on the enemy and brought him to a halt at the approaches to Moscow.

The Nazi command started preparing a second drive. Fifty-one divisions were massed at the far approaches to the capital: 13 tank, 33 infantry and 5 motorized divisions.

These German preparations were discovered in time, and prompt measures taken by the Soviet Command. The people of Moscow were enlisted in the city's defence. At the approaches, and in the capital itself, secure defence works were erected; in the munitions factories, Soviet men and women did not stop work for a moment. On November 7th, a military parade was held in Red Square as every year. In a stirring speech delivered from the platform on Lenin's Mausoleum, Stalin, the country's great leader, called on the Soviet people to fight for the utter defeat of the German invaders.

The German general advance on Moscow started on November 16, 1941, with a thrust from the Volokolamak area. After gaining some ground the Germans pushed on towards the towns of Klin and Istra. For four days the Soviet troops withstood the vicious enemy attacks at Klin, for seven days they fought gallantly for Istra. They wore the enemy down, sapped his strength, and by the beginning of December forced him to fall back on the defensive.

In the meantime, the Germans had also been attacking at the southern end of the Soviet Western Front, in an effort to break through to Moscow by way of Tula. But, together with the people of that town, the Soviet forces ringed it in with a system of impregnable defences, against which all the enemy's attacks proved futile. The defenders of Tula put up a truly heroic resistance; they did not yield an inch, and thanks to them the Soviet Army Command was able to concentrate fresh forces in the region of Kashira and Ryazan and stem the German drive there too.

Nor was the German Central army group, operating in the Mozhaisk sector, any more successful.

For twenty days the Soviet forces had been fighting heavy defensive actions on a 220-mile front, holding back the enemy onslaught. The battle for Moscow, organized and inspired by the genius of Stalin, was unprecedented in its intensity. In spite of their enormous numerical superiority, partic-

ularly in tanks, the Germans failed to breach the Moscow defences.

In the opening days of December, sanguinary battles were still being fought under the walls of Moscow; but the situation had changed radically. The enemy's advance had been stemmed. His strength had been materially reduced, and his flanks, cut off from the main body, found themselves tied up in pockets. The Soviet troops, on the other hand, were incomparably stronger, as reserves of the Supreme Command had now come up.

On December 6, the Soviet Army, on Stalin's orders, started the counter-offensive. The objective was to smash the German Central army group and drive its battered remnants back from Moscow. A blow of unparalleled force was struck; and the Germans, who had proclaimed the fall of Moscow to be a matter of days and were already preparing to celebrate their victory, found themselves compelled, first to fight off furious Soviet attacks, and then to fall back to the west.

The world stood amazed at this turn of events. A good many people abroad believed in those days that the Soviet Union would not hold out for any length of time, and that Hitler would soon be triumphant. And now picked units of his still powerful army were retreating in disorder on many sectors of the front, abandoning their arms and materiel.

On December 13, the Soviet Information Bureau already announced the failure of the German plan for the encirclement and capture of Moscow. The communiqué said that by the end of December 11, the forces under General Lelyushenko had taken Rogachev and surrounded Klin. General Kuznetsov's troops had freed Yakhroma and were now southwest of Klin. General Rokossovsky's army had sent the Germans packing from Istra, and General Govorov's forces were in possession of the Kulebyakino-Lokotnya area.

Both arms of the German pincers were smashed, and the remnants of these armies pushed a long way back. On the Moscow and other sectors of the front, German losses in killed alone totalled 300,000 between December 6 and January 15. The Soviet Army captured 4,801 guns, 3,071 mortars, some 8,000 machine guns, 2,766 tanks and 33,640 motor vehicles.

The enemy plan for the encirclement and capture of Moscow was completely frustrated by the Soviet Army's December counter-offensive. Their strength badly sapped, the Germans had to abandon active operations on this part of the front.

The Soviet victory in the Battle of Moscow had far-reaching consequences. The Germans' main striking force was shattered here. The Soviet troops had dispelled the myth of Nazi "invincibility"; now they wrested the initiative from the enemy's hands and swung into the offensive on other fronts too.

Led by the great Stalin, the Soviet people and their gallant army had won a victory of world historic importance. The Stalin science of victory had triumphed.



MOSCOVITES ON SVERDLOV SQUARE INSPECTING A FASCIST PLANE BROUGHT DOWN IN THE ENVIRONS OF MOSCOW, JULY 1941

Right: Women workers of the *Trekhgor-naya Manufaktura* digging anti-tank ditches at the approaches to Moscow.
October 1941



Below: Building of anti-tank defences on the Bolshaya Kaluzhskaya Street in Moscow



GENERAL PANFILOV—HERO OF THE SOVIET UNION

GENERAL IVAN VASSILIEVICH PANFILOV made his name famous in the Battle of Moscow. He was killed in action in the autumn of 1941 when his division bravely defended the country's capital.

Ivan Panfilov was born in 1893, in the family of a clerk in Petrovsk, Saratov gubernia. He began to work for his livelihood at the age of twelve, following the death of his mother. In 1915 he was enlisted in the army. He joined the ranks of the Soviet Army in 1918. His commander and teacher was Chapayev.

By the time the Great Patriotic War broke out Ivan Panfilov was a highly educated officer. In the summer of 1941 he formed the 316th Division in the city of Alma-Ata which was sent straight to the front. A few months later this division won fame in the defence of Moscow. For its brilliant military feats it was renamed by the Supreme Command the Eighth Guards Rifle Division.

On October 18 the Germans launched a furious attack and flung at the division's left flank 100 tanks and 80 trucks with infantrymen. General Panfilov commanded the heroic defence with remarkable skill. For 17 consecutive days the Panfilovites parried the savage thrusts of the enemy. On November 18, 1941, Panfilov was killed by a bomb splinter in the village of Gusenevo. The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. posthumously awarded him the title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

GENERAL DOVATOR—HERO OF THE SOVIET UNION

LEV MIKHAILOVICH DOVATOR, was born in Byelorussia in a peasant family. He joined the Red Army as a cavalry trooper and worked his way up to the rank of general. When the war broke out Dovator was colonel in command of a cavalry group.

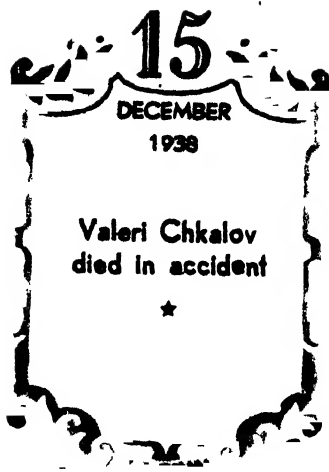
On August 23, 1941, the Cossack cavalry group commanded by Colonel Dovator, broke through the front and forced its way into the German rear. It advanced about 100 kilometres, and en route, disrupted the enemy's lines of communication, destroyed his headquarters and baggage trains, and blew up bridges. On September 11, 1941, Lev Dovator was promoted to the rank of major-general for this brilliant raid.

During the defence of Moscow, the cavalry troops commanded by General Dovator wore down the enemy, harried his rear, and reduced the speed of his offensive.

Transferred to the Solnechnogorsk sector, General Dovator's cavalry assumed the offensive. The Cossacks forced the units of the German 78th Division into a "pocket" and completely annihilated them.

On December 19, 1941, vanguard units of the corps approached the river Ruza. Here, in a battle near the village of Palashkino, General Dovator was killed by machine-gun fire.

On December 21, 1941, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. posthumously conferred the title of Hero of the Soviet Union on General Lev Dovator.



NAWAB SALAR JUNG BANGLADESH



VALERI CHKALOV

VALERI CHKALOV

(1904-1938)

SON OF A BOILERMAKER at the Vassilyevo ship repair yards on the Volga, Valeri Chkalov was born and spent his boyhood in the river settlement that now bears his name. A lad of uncommon wits and daring, he was ever the leader among his playmates. His free time he spent on the river, swimming and diving under the steamers and rafts. In and on the water, he was in his element. Speaking about himself in later years, Chkalov used to say: "My teachers in the school of life were the rivermen—I went to work among them as a boy, and their company was my first university."

He was a stoker on a dredger, then on a passenger boat, the *Bayan*, now called the *Mikhail Kalinin*. But the stokehole was far too cramped for Chkalov's restless, questing spirit. He felt the lure of a new element, more spacious even than water; that element was the air.

In 1919 Chkalov saw a plane for the first time; and this machine, man-controlled, soaring in the skies, conquered him utterly. His life was with the air force, he decided, and went doggedly about achieving his goal. First he found a job as aircraft mechanic; then, after much trying, he finally got his way and was enrolled in the Yegoryevsk Flying School.

In flying, Chkalov's magnificent talents unfolded to the full. His eager mind was always seeking for new and more perfect ways of flying. Soon he was an expert of the air manoeuvre, an adept of aerial combat. There was one occasion when he looped the loop 250 times in 45 minutes; it was a world record in its way. His faultless stunting technique astounded onlookers by its combination of daring and mathematical exactitude.

Chkalov's services in testing new machines were immense. He tried out over sixty makes of aircraft, studying the operation of every portion of the complex mechanism and judging the fitness of the machine. He had no equal in this work.

On the 1st of May, 1935, in the traditional air parade over Red Square in Moscow, Chkalov piloted the leading machine, as he always did; and at Moscow's Central Aerodrome the following day, he gave a demonstration of stunting and aerial combat before the leaders of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet government. On this occasion he was introduced to Stalin. Chkalov had been known to fly without a parachute when testing new planes. Stalin asked him why he did not make use of a parachute in moments of danger but tried to save the aircraft.

"The planes are too precious, Comrade Stalin," Chkalov replied. "I fly experimental machines and don't care to wreck them, so I do everything to save the machine and myself along with it."

Stalin said he should use a parachute whenever necessary, and added:

"Your life's more precious to us than any machine."

This meeting with Stalin put its mark on Chkalov's whole life. Stalin's words of solicitude spurred him to exploits that opened new pages in the history of aviation.

Together with two other well-known Soviet airmen, Georgi Baidukov and Alexander Belyakov, Chkalov in July 1936 made a great non-stop flight: Moscow—the Barents Sea—Franz-Josef Land—Cape Chelyuskin—Petropavlovsk-on-Kamchatka—Udd Island. The airmen called this the Stalin route. In 56 hours and 20 minutes, Chkalov's plane covered a distance of 9,374 kilometres, more than 5,000 of them over the waters and ice of the Arctic.

The Soviet government showed high appreciation of what Chkalov and his companions had accomplished; it conferred upon them the title of Hero of the Soviet Union. Chkalov won respect and affection throughout the country, he became one of its most popular figures.

But he was not the man to rest on his laurels, he was bent on fresh deeds to benefit his country and advance knowledge. In June 1937, the same crew blazed a second Stalin route by their unprecedented non-stop flight from Moscow to North America via the North Pole. This flight, which provided a vivid illustration of the heights achieved by aviation skill and equipment in the Soviet Union, lasted 63 hours 16 minutes. The single engine aircraft covered a distance of 11,430 kilometres. Chkalov and his colleagues opened up the shortest air route between the two continents.

America feted these air envoys of Soviet Russia. But Chkalov, replying to the Americans' enthusiastic greetings, said: "The whole of our mighty land was flying over the Pole; we only held the controls."

By this flight, equivalent in importance to a great scientific discovery, Chkalov won world renown. And at home, in the Soviet Union, the people admired him more than ever. In December 1937, his native region of Gorky and the Chuvash Republic elected him their deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R.

After this epoch-making flight, Chkalov still kept up his routine work of testing new combat planes. In a letter to Stalin at that time, he wrote: "I shall fly as long as my hands can grip the controls of a plane and my eyes see the ground." He was planning and preparing for another great feat—a non-stop flight round the world—when his glorious life was cut short. In 1938, in the heyday of his talents, Chkalov was killed while testing a new fighter model.

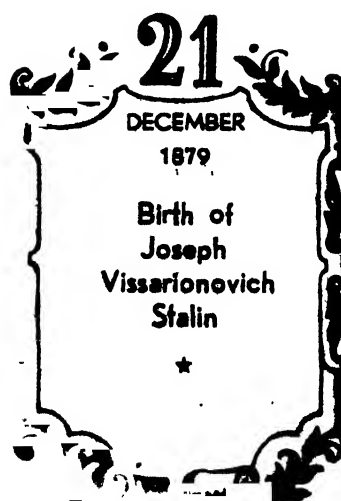
Chkalov's skill and noble deeds have gone down in the history of Soviet aviation, they have inspired young airmen with courage, gallantry and fortitude. During the war, thousands of Soviet flyers, famed Heroes of the Soviet Union among them, drew strength and confidence in action from Valeri Chkalov's example.

NC BAH.

NA B



J. V. STALIN



STALIN—THE LENIN OF TODAY

STALIN IS THE BRILLIANT LEADER and teacher of the Party, the great strategist of the Socialist Revolution, military commander, and guide of the Soviet state. An implacable attitude towards the enemies of Socialism, profound fidelity to principle, a combination of clear revolutionary perspective and clarity of purpose with extraordinary firmness and persistence in the pursuit of aims, wise and practical leadership, and intimate contact with the masses—such are the characteristic features of Stalin's style. After Lenin, no other leader in the world has been called upon to direct such vast masses of workers and peasants. He has a unique faculty for generalizing the constructive revolutionary experience of the masses, for seizing upon and developing their initiative, for learning from the masses as well as teaching them, and for leading them forward to victory.

Stalin's whole career is an example of profound theoretical power combined with an unusual breadth and versatility of practical experience in the revolutionary struggle.

In conjunction with the tried and tested Leninists who are his immediate associates, and at the head of the great Bolshevik Party, Stalin guides the destinies of a multi-national Socialist state, a state of workers and peasants of which there is no precedent in history. His advice is taken as a guide to action in all fields of socialist construction. His work is extraordinary for its variety; his energy truly amazing. The range of questions which engage his attention is immense, embracing complex problems of Marxist-Leninist theory and school textbooks; problems of Soviet foreign policy and the municipal affairs of Moscow, the proletarian capital; the development of the Great Northern Sea Route and the reclamation of the Colchian marshes; the advancement of Soviet literature and art and the editing of the model rules for collective farms; and, lastly, the solution of most intricate theoretical and practical problems in the science of warfare.

Everybody is familiar with the cogent and invincible force of Stalin's logic, the crystal clarity of his mind, his iron will, his devotion to the Party, his ardent faith in the people, and love for the people. Everybody is familiar with his modesty, his simplicity of manner, his consideration for people, and his merciless severity towards enemies of the people. Everybody is familiar with his intolerance of ostentation, of pharisees and windbags, of whiners and alarmists. Stalin is wise and deliberate in solving complex political questions where a thorough weighing of pros and cons is required. At the same time, he is a supreme master of bold revolutionary decisions and of swift adaptations to changed conditions.

Stalin is the worthy continuer of the cause of Lenin, or, as it is said in the Party: Stalin is the Lenin of today.

Replying to the congratulations of public bodies and individuals on his fiftieth birthday, in 1929, Stalin wrote: "I set down your congratulations and greetings as addressed to the great Party of the working class, which begot me and reared me in its image. . . . You need have no doubt, comrades, that I am prepared in the future, too, to devote to the cause of the working class, to the cause of the proletarian revolution and world Communism, all my strength, all my faculties, and, if need be, all my blood, to the very last drop."

In the eyes of the peoples of the U.S.S.R., Stalin is the incarnation of their heroism, their love of their country, their patriotism. "For Stalin! For our country!"—it was with this cry that the valiant Soviet Army demolished its malignant and treacherous enemy, fascist Germany, and hoisted the Flag of Victory over Berlin.

"For Stalin! For our country!"—it was with this cry that the men of the Soviet Army and Navy demolished imperial-

ist Japan and brought security to the frontiers of the Soviet Union in the Far East.

With the name of Stalin in their hearts, the working class of the Soviet Union performed unparalleled feats of labour in the Great Patriotic War, supplying the Red Army with first-class weapons and ammunition.

With the name of Stalin in their hearts, the collective farmers toiled devotedly in the fields to supply the Red Army and the cities with food, and industry with raw materials.

With the name of Stalin in their hearts, the Soviet intelligentsia worked with might and main in defence of their country, perfecting the weapons of the Red Army and the technique and organization of industry, and furthering Soviet science and culture.

With the name of Stalin in their hearts, the entire Soviet people are now successfully repairing the damage caused by the war and are striving for a new powerful advance of the Soviet national economy and Soviet culture.

Stalin's name is a symbol of the courage and the renown of the Soviet people, and a call to heroic deeds for the welfare of their great country.

Stalin's name is cherished by the boys and girls of the socialist land, the Young Pioneers. Their dearest ambition is to be like Lenin and Stalin, to be political figures of the Lenin and Stalin type. At the call of the Party and Stalin, the youth of the Soviet Union have erected giant socialist industrial plants, have reared cities in the taiga, have built splendid ships, are conquering the Arctic, are mastering new methods in industry and agriculture, are strengthening the defences of their country, and are working creatively in the sciences and the arts. At the call of the Party and Stalin, they displayed exemplary heroism and courage in the battlefields of the Patriotic War and exemplary devotion in the rear, working for the victory of the Red Army. Fostered by Lenin and Stalin, the young Communist League is a true aid of the Bolshevik Party, a reliable successor to the older generation of fighters for Communism.

In all their many languages the peoples of the Soviet Union compose songs to Stalin, expressing their boundless devotion for their great leader, teacher, friend and military commander.

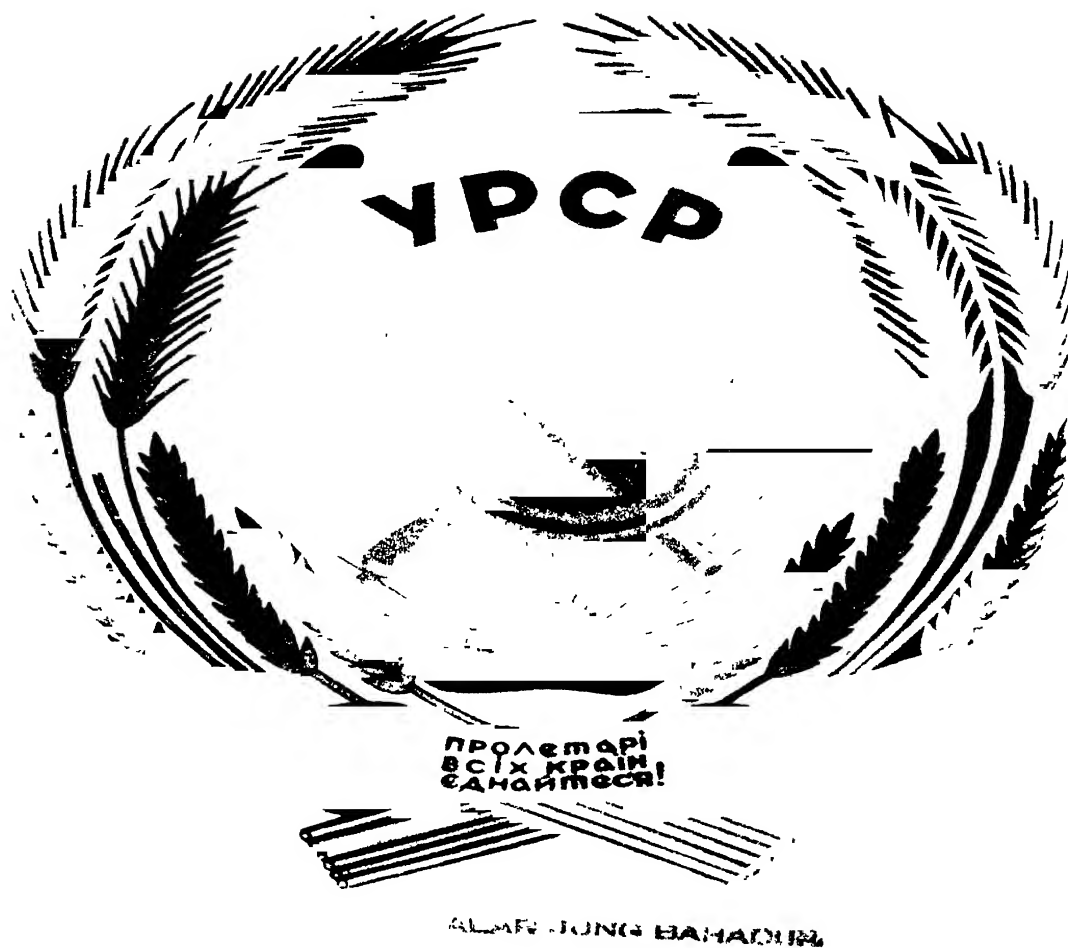
In the lore and art of the people, Stalin's name is ever linked with Lenin's. "We go with Stalin as with Lenin, we talk to Stalin as to Lenin; he knows all our inmost thoughts; all his life he has cared for us," runs one of the many Russian folk tales of today.

The name of Stalin is a symbol of the moral and political unity of Soviet society.

With the name of Stalin, all progressive men and women, all the peace-loving democratic nations associate their hope for lasting peace and security.

"It is our good fortune that in the trying years of the war the Red Army and the Soviet people were led forward by the wise and tested leader of the Soviet Union—the great Stalin. With the name of Generalissimo Stalin the glorious victories of our army will go down in the history of our country and in the history of the world. Under the guidance of Stalin, the great leader and organizer, we are now proceeding to peaceful constructive labours, striving to bring the forces of socialist society to full fruition and to justify the dearest hopes of our friends all over the world."*

* V. M. Molotov, *The Speech on the 28th Anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution*, Russ. ed., pp. 18-19, 1945.



***The Arms
of the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist
Republic***

UKRAINIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC

THE UKRAINIAN SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLIC is located in the southwest of the U.S.S.R., extending over a territory of 576,600 square kilometres. In 1939 it had a population of 41,000,000; Kiev, the capital, had 846,000. The great majority of the population are Ukrainians, the rest is made up of Russians, Byelorussians, Jews and other nationalities. The Ukrainian S.S.R. now fully unites all Ukrainian lands; thus the age-old dream of the Ukrainian people has come true. Western Ukraine, liberated by the Soviet Army from the yoke of the Polish landowners, joined the Ukraine in 1939; in 1940, the Ukraine was joined by Northern Bukovina, liberated from the yoke of the Rumanian boyars; and in 1945, by virtue of a treaty between the U.S.S.R. and Czechoslovakia, Transcarpathian Ukraine was united with the Ukrainian S.S.R. In wealth of natural resources the Ukrainian S.S.R. occupies one of the leading places in Europe.

Before the revolution, the Ukrainian people had had no state independence. The workers and peasants of the Ukraine were cruelly exploited by capitalists and landlords. The plants and factories, a considerable number of which were owned by foreign capital, had a 10-12-hour workday and paid miserable wages to their workers.

The victorious Great October Socialist Revolution liberated the Ukrainian people from national and class oppression, and with the aid of the great Russian people they acquired independent statehood for the first time in their history. Like all the Union Republics of the Soviet Union the Ukrainian S.S.R. enjoys the right to maintain direct relations with foreign countries. The Ukraine is a member of the United Nations Organization.

The industry of the Ukraine has grown and changed tremendously since the establishment of Soviet power. Such outstanding enterprises of socialist industry as the Lenin Dnieper Hydroelectric Power Station, the Kharkov Tractor, Turbo-generator and Machine-Building Plants, the Novo-Kramatorsk Machine-Building Plant, the Zaporozhye Combine Plant *Communard*, the Steel Mills *Zaporozhstal* and *Azovstal*, the Krivoi Rog Steel and Iron Works, the Voroshilovgrad Locomotive-Building Plant and many others were built in the period of the Stalin Five-Year Plans. In 1940, the Ukraine produced more than half the coal and pig iron, nearly half the steel, three-fifths of the aluminium and two-thirds of the coke of the Soviet Union; in the same year the production of Ukrainian large-scale industry was valued at 22,000,000,000 rubles, as against the 2,000,000,000 of 1913.

Great progress was made by Ukrainian socialist agriculture. There were 1,225 machine and tractor stations in the republic in 1940. Ninety thousand tractors, more than 31,000 combines and more than 50,000 motor vehicles were in operation in the fields of the state and collective farms. The Ukraine was the largest wheat grower in Europe with a crop that averaged 1.46 tons per hectare on the collective farms of the republic in 1940. The acreage under crop and the yield of industrial crops increased from year to year. The state and collective farms raised cattle breeding to a high level.

Ukrainian culture attained an unprecedented level. A Ukrainian Academy of Sciences with 26 scientific-research institutes employing over 1,000 scientific workers has been founded. In 1941 there were nearly 30,000 elementary and secondary schools with more than 6,500,000 children instructed in their native tongue; 116 schools of higher learning with an enrolment of 127,000 students, and 132 theatres, 26,000 clubs and 41,000 libraries. The press grew by leaps and bounds. The publishing houses of the republic put out 332,300,000 books between 1937 and 1940.

Germany's treacherous attack on the Soviet Union brought to a temporary halt the Ukraine's impetuous development. The German fascists conceived a monstrous plan of exterminating the Ukrainian people and destroying their economy and culture. The Hitlerites shot, suffocated in gas chambers, tortured to death in concentration camps or exterminated in penal servitude in Germany millions of Ukrainians, sparing neither women nor children. The German fascists re-

duced to ruins the factories, plants, mines and whole cities of the Ukraine and wrecked her machine and tractor stations, the state and collective farms. The damage they inflicted on the Ukrainian S.S.R. is appraised at 285,000,000,000 rubles. Nevertheless, the invaders failed to break the spirit of the freedom-loving Ukrainian people. They answered the savage fascist terror by waging a merciless guerilla war. Two hundred thousand people's avengers—Ukrainian guerillas—inflicted enormous losses on the manpower and to the materiel of the German invaders. Millions of Ukrainians fought in the ranks of the Soviet Army defending the freedom and independence of their country. For their heroic struggle against the enemy nearly 2,000 Ukrainians were awarded the high title of Hero of the Soviet Union.

Liberation of the Ukrainian S.S.R. was begun as early as autumn 1943, and with the aid of the fraternal peoples of the U.S.S.R. the toilers of the Ukraine immediately set about the restoration of the economy devastated by the Germans. By the end of 1946, i.e., within three years, 21 of the 24 steel and iron works, nearly 100 machine-building plants, the Zuyev Hydroelectric Power Plant, and electric power plants of the Lvov region had been rebuilt and put into operation; the first turbine of the Lenin Dnieper Hydroelectric Power Plant was launched, and hundreds of mines in the Donetz Basin began work and are already producing half their pre-war output of coal.

In accordance with the Five-Year Plan (1946-50), 49,500,000,000 rubles will be invested in the national economy of the Ukrainian S.S.R. This will make it possible not only to restore, but even to exceed considerably the pre-war level of the national economy of the Ukraine.

In 1950 the republic is scheduled to produce 86,100,000 tons of coal, 8,800,000 tons of steel, 9,700,000 tons of pig iron and 15,500,000 tons of coke. The total capacity of the electric power stations will exceed the pre-war figure by 2,570,000 kilowatts; they will produce 13,690,000,000 kilowatt-hours. Thirty new blast furnaces will be constructed. An automobile plant with an annual output of 60,000 trucks will be built in Dnipropetrovsk. A ball-bearing plant will be built in Kharkov; in 1950 the Kharkov Tractor Plant will raise its output of tractors to 25,000, as against the 10,000 in 1940. The giant of heavy machine-building, the Novo-Kramatorsk Plant, will exceed the level of its pre-war production by 30 per cent. Automobile assembly plants will be built in Odessa and Lvov. The old food industry enterprises will be restored and new ones will be opened with their total production increased to 4,400,000,000 rubles in 1950; 1,637,000 tons of sugar will be produced.

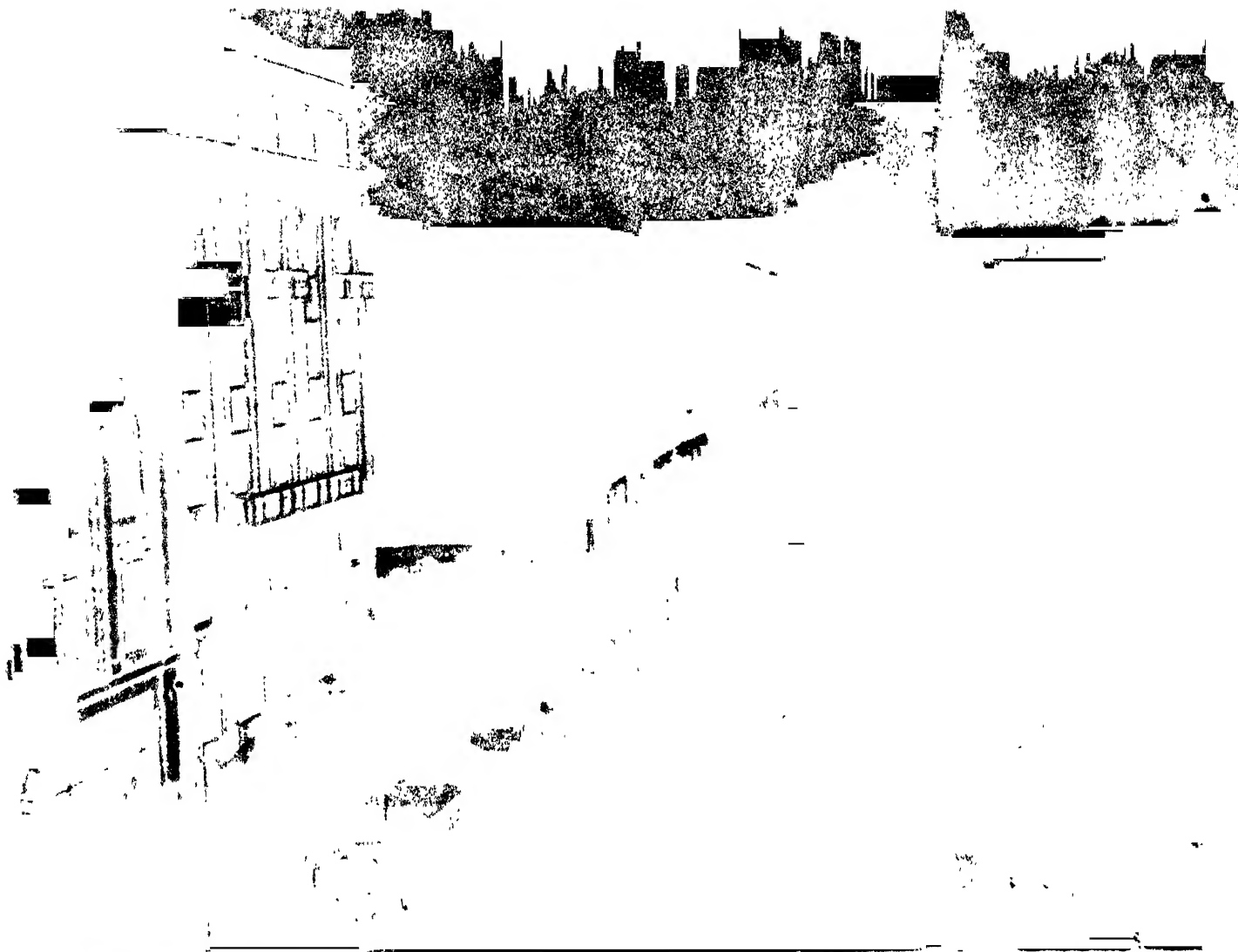
Considerable progress will be made in restoring and furthering the development of Ukrainian agriculture in the course of the new Five-Year Plan period. The total grain harvest is expected to amount to 27,800,000 tons in 1950; 801,000 hectares will be sown to sunflowers and 830,000 hectares to sugar beets.

In the field of cattle breeding it is planned to increase the number of horses to 2,629,000, horned cattle to 12,230,000, sheep and goats to 6,780,000 and hogs to 9,600,000 head by the end of 1950.

The material well-being and cultural standards of the Ukrainian people will be raised.

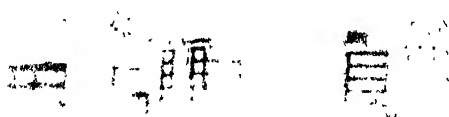
The network of elementary and secondary schools, schools of higher learning, libraries, theatres, cinemas and other cultural and educational institutions will be fully restored and considerably expanded in the towns and villages of the Ukraine in the near future. The medical and sanitary services will be considerably improved with the number of hospital beds increased to 173,100 by the end of the Five-Year Plan period, considerably exceeding the pre-war number.

The new Five Year Plan for the restoration and development of the national economy of the Ukrainian S.S.R. provides for unprecedented economic and cultural progress in the regions of Western Ukraine, Northern Bukovina and Transcarpathian Ukraine, which have been reunited in the single family of the great Ukrainian people.

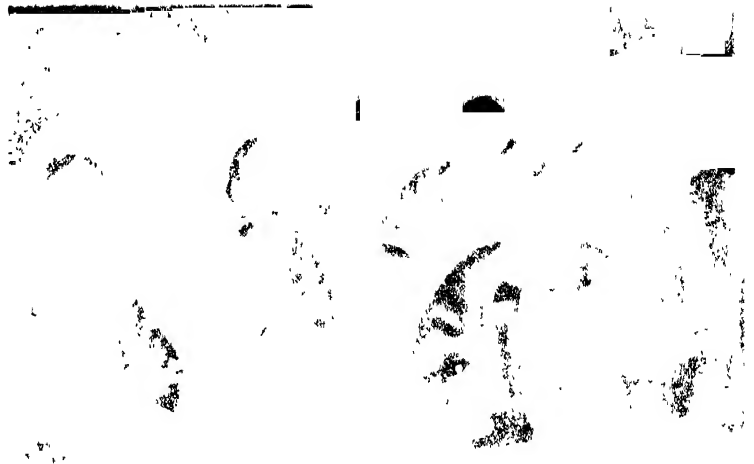


NA WAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR

RESTORED KRESHCHATIK STREET IN KIEV



MONUMENT TO TARAS SHEVCHENKO IN KHARKOV



A group of young men and women from the village of Dragovo, Transcarpathian region, who voted for the first time in the elections to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. in February 1946

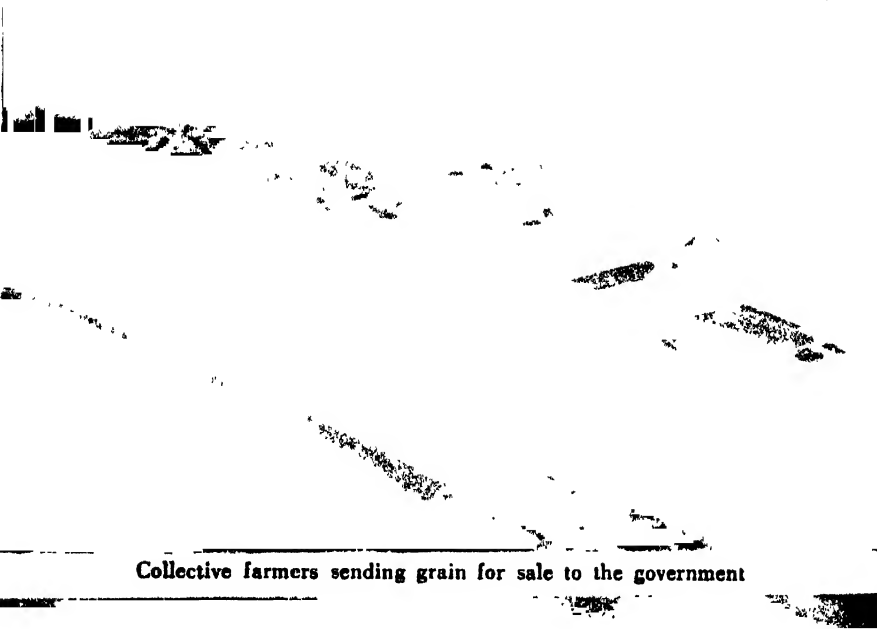
Monument to Soviet Army men who fell in battle for the liberation of the Transcarpathian Ukraine. Uzhgorod, 1945



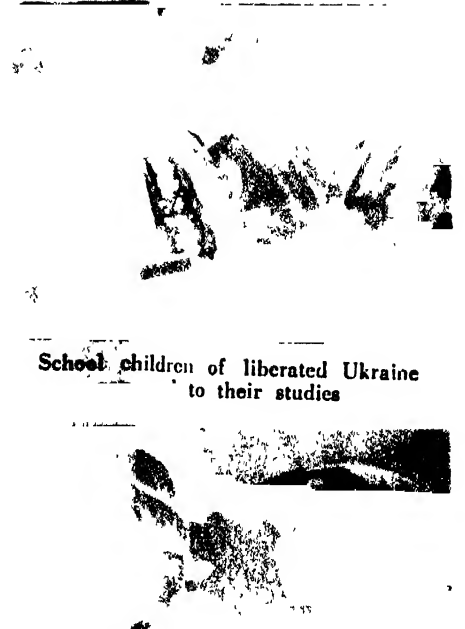
Ivan Turyanitsa, Chairman of the Transcarpathian Regional Executive Committee of the Soviets of Working People's Deputies, and deputy to the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. (centre), on the field of a collective farm in Beregova district. 1946

The City Opera House in Lvov

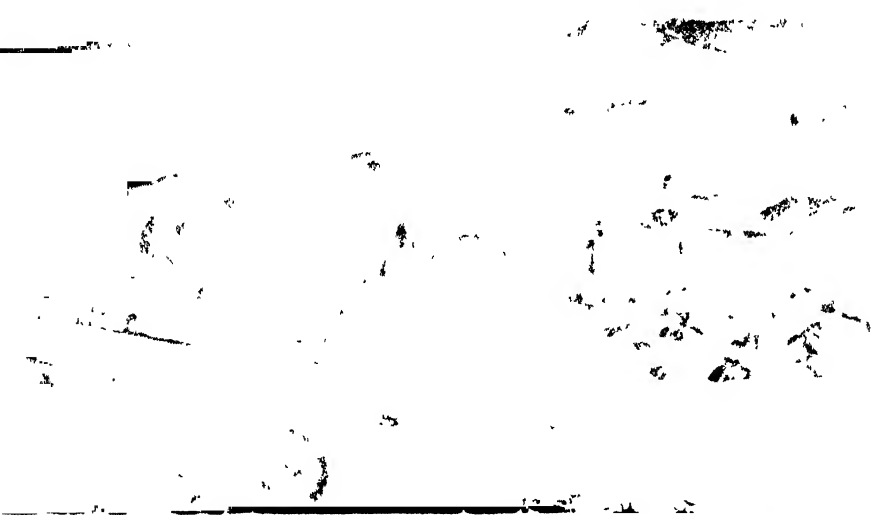
Department of Literature at the State University in Uzhgorod



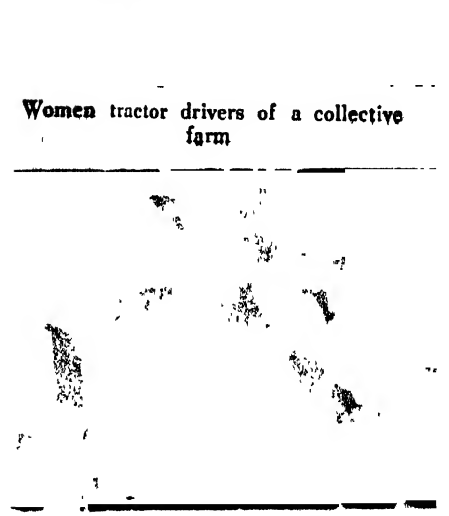
Collective farmers sending grain for sale to the government



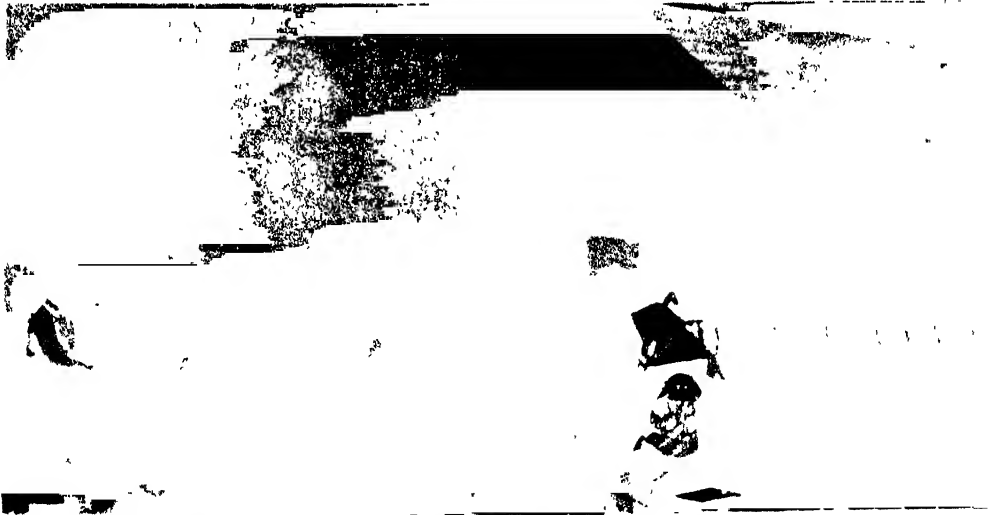
School children of liberated Ukraine to their studies



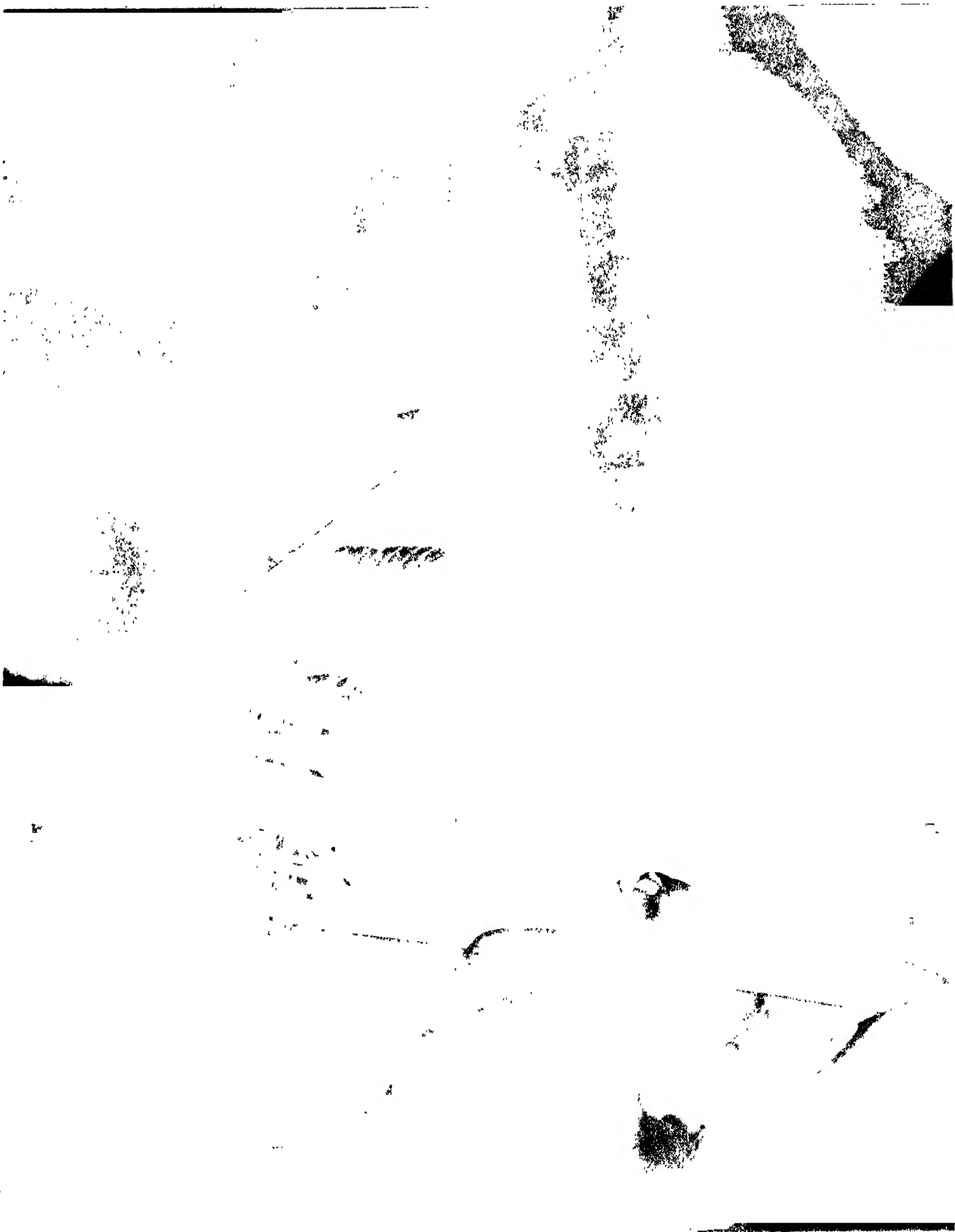
Collective farm threshers at work in the village of Khoshevatoye, Odessa region



Women tractor drivers of a collective farm



Khutor, a village in Brovar district, Kiev region, razed by the Germans during the occupation. It was completely rebuilt in 1946



BLAST-FURNACE NO. 3 AT ZAPOROZHSTAL

PAVLO TYCHINA

PAVLO TYCHINA occupies a well-deserved place of distinction amongst Soviet poets. For many years now his poems have ceased to be the privilege of Ukrainian readers and have entered into the literature of all the peoples of the Soviet Union.

Pavlo Tychina was born in 1891, in a poor peasant family living in North Ukraine.

A meeting with Mikhail Kotsubinsky, the great Ukrainian humanist writer and friend of Maxim Gorky, played an important part in the poet's life. His companionship with Kotsubinsky and the latter's approval of his early poetic efforts were a stimulus to Tychina to devote his whole being to poetry. His first book of verse, *Clarinets of the Sun*, was published in 1918. It was the work of a mature master and was enthusiastically received by the public. His next book, *The Plough* (1920), and his third, *Wind from the Ukraine* (1924), confirmed early opinions and brought Pavlo Tychina to the fore as the leading poet of the Ukraine.

The series of books which followed are something in the nature of a poetic chronicle of the Ukraine during the years when Socialism was being built up. Some of them are: *Chernigov* (1931), *The Party Leads* (1934), *The Feeling of a United Family* (1938), and *Steel and Tenderness* (1940).

From the very beginning of the war Pavlo Tychina played his part both as a poet and as a citizen. His verses and longer poems, later published in a collected edition under the title *Conquer and Live* (1941-43), were an inspiration to Soviet soldiers and partisans. After the liberation of the Ukraine, Pavlo Tychina was appointed Minister of Education of the Ukrainian S.S.R. He is a Doctor of Literature and a Member of the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences.

Pavlo Tychina came to Ukrainian literature as a bold innovator. His poetry has an intricate rhythm and his verses are sonorous and melodious. Some of his poems have the sound of a musical play (*Sylvan Chorus*). They contain a great variety of themes and forms but all have a profound and rich content. His philosophical poem, *Funeral of a Friend*, with its "requiem" affirming the eternal triumph of creation over destruction, of life over death, is of especial interest.

Poetry has never been an end in itself for Pavlo Tychina. His whole development has been that of a progressive Soviet intellectual whose life and creative production have been closely bound up with the struggle of the Soviet people for the realization of the great ideas of Lenin and Stalin in their country. Pavlo Tychina is a Stalin Prize winner and a deputy to the Supreme Soviets of the U.S.S.R. and the Ukrainian S.S.R.

ALEXANDER KORNEICHUK

ALEXANDER KORNEICHUK, the son of a railway mechanic in the Ukraine, was born in 1905. The stirring events of the October Revolution of 1917, of the Civil War and foreign intervention left an indelible imprint on his youthful mind. His father was shot by the Whiteguards and he had to earn his living early in life. He was apprenticed to a stove setter, then worked as a roofer's helper and next became a railway repairman. He received his schooling at the Kiev Workers' Preparatory School and upon graduation was admitted to the Literature Department of the Institute of Public Education.

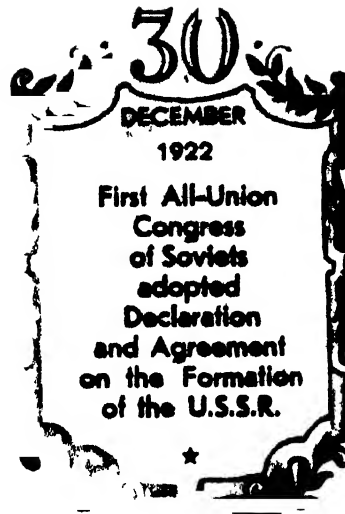
He wrote his first play, *On the Brink*, in 1928 when he was still a student; but it was only his fifth play, *The Loss of the Squadron*, that brought the author fame: it was awarded second prize at the state contest held in 1934.

Korneichuk is one of the most popular Soviet playwrights today. His plays are performed in many theatres of the various republic's national stages of the Soviet Union. Long before the war they were well known in Sweden, Norway, Czechoslovakia and other countries. *Platon Krechet*, a lyrical play dealing with the new generation in the Soviet Union, which embodies the best traits of the people of our epoch; *Bogdan Khmelnytsky*, a historical drama which depicts the Ukrainian people's heroic struggle for their liberation in the 18th cen-

tury; the comedy *In the Steppes of the Ukraine*, and the profoundly patriotic play *Front*, with a plot of topical interest presented in bold and unmincing words, are all very popular here and abroad. Each of these plays has earned the author a Stalin Prize.

The principal theme of Korneichuk's dramas is the Ukrainian people, their history, the successes they have achieved in the development of socialist society, its unshakable friendship with the other peoples of the Soviet Union. Ukrainian folk motifs permeate his work. His predilection for melodious monologues and rich metaphors, his inborn sense of humour are deeply rooted in Ukrainian national character and Ukrainian folklore. The characters he creates are typical; they are an affirmation of the pride Soviet citizens take in their country; they throw down the gauntlet to the stick-in-the-muds and those steeped in ignorance or otherwise tainted with vestiges of the past. Korneichuk has just completed a new play called *The Dream*, which is now being rehearsed by the Ivan Franko Theatre in Kiev and by the Moscow Art Theatre.

Korneichuk is a member of the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. and Chairman of the Supreme Soviet of the Ukrainian S.S.R. He is also a member of the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences and President of the Soviet Writers' Union of the Ukraine.



TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE FORMATION OF THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

TWENTY-FIVE YEARS AGO, on December 30, 1922, the First Congress of Soviets of the U.S.S.R. held in Moscow adopted the Declaration and Agreement on the Formation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. This was a great historical event in the life of the young Soviet state. It bore witness to the strengthening of the principles of equality and good will among the peoples of the Land of Soviets, to the triumph of the wise national policy of Lenin and Stalin.

From its very inception the Soviet government applied itself to the solution of the national question in accordance with the great principles set forth in the program of the Communist Party.

"We want a *voluntary* alliance of nations," Lenin wrote, "an alliance which would preclude the coercion of one nation by another—an alliance which would be founded on complete confidence, on a clear recognition of brotherly unity, on absolutely voluntary consent. Such an alliance cannot be brought about at once; we have to work towards it with the greatest patience and circumspection. . . ."

The Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets in its first public act, on November 7, 1917, in its "Appeal to the Workers, Soldiers and Peasants," declared that Soviet power would assure all nations inhabiting Russia the genuine right to self-determination. In the Decree on Peace, ratified on the day after the setting up of Soviet power—November 8, 1917—the Congress of Soviets proclaimed the emancipation of all nationalities. A People's Commissariat for the Affairs of Nationalities headed by J. V. Stalin was set up by the Congress to direct the work of implementing the national policy of the Soviet government.

The first important act of the Soviet government dealing specifically with the national question was the "Declaration of Rights of the Nations of Russia," which was signed by Lenin and Stalin on November 15, 1917. This declaration defined the program of the socialist state on the national problem. It proclaimed:

- "1. The equality and sovereignty of the nations of Russia.
- "2. The right of the nations of Russia to freedom of self-determination. . . .
- "3. Abolition of all national and national-religious privileges and restrictions whatsoever.

"4. Freedom of development for the national minorities and ethnographic groups inhabiting the territory of Russia."

The Third All-Russian Congress of Soviets was held in January 1918. On motion of Stalin, who reported on the national question, the Congress adopted a decree "On the Federal Institutions of the Russian Republic," which set forth in essence the federative system of government. This document, together with the "Declaration of Rights of the Toiling and Exploited People," which was also adopted by the Congress, constituted the basis of the future Soviet Constitution.

The creation of the Autonomous Soviet Republics as constituent parts of the R.S.F.S.R. began in the spring of 1918. In July 1918, the Fifth All-Russian Congress of Soviets ratified the Constitution of the R.S.F.S.R., the first Soviet Constitution.

The tremendous work of the formation of Soviet Socialist Republics and of creating the conditions necessary for close bonds between them was in the main completed in 1920-21. By this time the Ukrainian and Byelorussian Republics, the Transcaucasian Federation (Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan) and the Central Asiatic Republics had worked out their constitutions and concluded treaties of alliance with the R.S.F.S.R.

The military and political alliance between the R.S.F.S.R. and other Soviet republics made it possible for the Soviet peoples to emerge victorious from the Civil War and liquidate the foreign intervention. With the help of the Russian Federation, the Ukrainian, Byelorussian and other Soviet republics were able to defend their political independence and strengthen Soviet power.

Five years after the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution, upon the defeat of the interventionists and the internal counter-revolution in the Civil War, the conditions necessary for a transition to a much closer association of the peoples in a single political union were in existence. Such a union was necessary because of the new tasks which faced the country. It was necessary to cement all the forces of the working people to build Socialism, organize a powerful national defence and assure the all-round development of all nationalities in the Land of Soviets.

Realizing the exceptional importance of these tasks, the people of various nationalities, at their congresses, began to urge the unification of their respective Soviet republics in a single federal state. Congresses of Soviets of the Transcaucasian Federation, and the Ukrainian and Byelorussian republics held in December 1922, resolved that it had become necessary to create a Union State. The Tenth All-Russian Congress of Soviets, which opened on December 23, 1922, likewise adopted a resolution, after Stalin had delivered a report on the subject, stating that the time had come to unite the four socialist republics—the R.S.F.S.R., Ukrainian S.S.R., Byelorussian S.S.R. and the Transcaucasian Federation. On December 27, at a conference of delegations from the Soviet republics authorized for this purpose, drafts of a Declaration and Agreement on the Formation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics were adopted for submission to the First Congress of Soviets of the U.S.S.R.

The First Congress of Soviets of the U.S.S.R. opened on December 30, 1922. "This day," Joseph Stalin said in his report to the Congress, "is not only a day of retrospect, it is also a day which marks the triumph of the new Russia over the old Russia, the Russia which was the gendarme of Europe and the hangman of Asia. Today is a day of triumph for the new Russia, which has smashed the chains of national oppression, organized victory over capital, created a dictatorship of the proletariat, awakened the peoples of the East, inspired the workers of the West."

The Congress ratified the Declaration and the Agreement on the Formation of the U.S.S.R. with great enthusiasm. The Union Republics were created on the basis of equality. Not one of them, irrespective of size of territory, number of population, or level of development of economy and culture, was given an advantage over another. It was a union of free and equal socialist republics.

A year later, on January 31, 1924, the Second Congress of Soviets of the U.S.S.R. ratified the Constitution of the U.S.S.R. that had been worked out by Stalin, and with this the formative period of the first multi-national Soviet Socialist State in the world was brought to an end.

As a result of the formation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Soviet power was still further strengthened and consolidated. It achieved brilliant successes in the historical transformation of a backward country into a progressive state. During the Stalin Five-Year Plan periods the U.S.S.R. became a country with a mighty industry and collectivized agriculture, a multi-national but single socialist power whose stability "might well be envied by any national state in any part of the world" (Stalin). In the beginning of 1936, the U.S.S.R. comprised seven Union Republics: the R.S.F.S.R., the Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Uzbek, Turkmen and Tajik S.S.R., and the Transcaucasian Federation.

The greatest landmark in the development of the Soviet Union as a multi-national socialist state was the Eighth Extraordinary Congress of Soviets of the U.S.S.R. On December 5, 1936, this Congress adopted the new Constitution of the U.S.S.R., which the people named the Stalin Constitution after the name of its author. The new Constitution recorded the great achievements of the Soviet peoples in the fields of economy, culture and political development and at the same time recorded the right of each Union Republic to secede from the Union. In this way were emphasized the sovereign rights of each Union Republic, the realization of which is guaranteed by Soviet democracy. In pursuance of a law adopted by the Supreme Soviet of the U.S.S.R. on

February 1, 1944, the Union Republics were given authority to establish foreign relations. Today every Union Republic has a Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Two Union Republics, the Ukrainian S.S.R. and the Byelorussian S.S.R., are member-nations of the United Nations Organization.

Five new Union Republics were formed in the country and admitted into the Union upon the adoption of the Stalin Constitution: Georgia, Armenia, and Azerbaijan, which formerly comprised the Transcaucasian Federation, and Kazakhstan and Kirghizia, which were formerly included in the R.S.F.S.R. as Autonomous Republics.

In 1940 five new Union Republics joined the Soviet Union: the Karelo-Finnish and Moldavian S.S.R. were organized, and the Lithuanian, Latvian and Estonian S.S.R. were admitted into the U.S.S.R. Sixteen equal constituent Soviet Socialist Republics are now united in the Soviet Union.

Since their formation, the Soviet republics have achieved unprecedented successes in the development of their economy and culture. A powerful socialist industry and a large-scale socialist agriculture equipped with the most up-to-date machinery have been created in each of them. Culture, national in form and socialist in content, blossomed forth. The age-old dream of all the peoples of the country of a life of freedom, and of a general improvement in their material and cultural conditions, became actual fact.

The greatness of the Soviet Union was graphically demonstrated in the Patriotic War against the German fascist invaders. Under the leadership of the Party of Lenin and Stalin, all the peoples of the Soviet Union fought selflessly for the honour, freedom and independence of their multi-national socialist country. The Soviet Union, which played the decisive role in the defeat of Hitlerite Germany, scored not only a military victory but also an ideological victory. The Soviet ideology of friendship among the peoples, of equality of race and nation, was victorious over the beastly fascist ideology of racial hatred and national oppression. The passionate and vivifying Soviet patriotism which then inspired the peoples of the U.S.S.R. to great military and labour feats, now inspires millions of Soviet people of all nationalities to carry out successfully the post-war five-year program for the restoration and development of the national economy of the U.S.S.R.

"The strength of Soviet patriotism," Joseph Stalin said, "lies in the fact that it is based not on racial or nationalistic prejudices, but upon the profound devotion and loyalty of the people to their Soviet motherland, on the fraternal co-operation of the working people of all the nations inhabiting our country. Soviet patriotism is a harmonious blend of the national traditions of the peoples and the common vital interests of all the working people of the Soviet Union. Soviet patriotism does not disunite but unites all the nations and nationalities inhabiting our country in a single fraternal family. This should be regarded as the basis of the indestructible and ever-growing friendship that exists among the peoples of the Soviet Union. At the same time, the peoples of the U.S.S.R. respect the rights and independence of the peoples of foreign countries and have always shown their readiness to live in peace and friendship with neighbouring countries. This should be regarded as the basis upon which the ties between our country and other freedom-loving peoples are expanding and growing stronger."

The great and powerful Soviet Union is celebrating the 25th anniversary of its formation in the vanguard of advanced and progressive mankind. The U.S.S.R. was and will remain the reliable bulwark of peace and friendship among the peoples.

